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PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN FRANCE

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I

The present organization of secondary instruction in France is the outcome of a profound inquiry conducted by a parliamentary commission under the chairmanship of M. A. Ribot, deputy, and of the deliberations of the High Council of Public Instruction on the results of that inquiry and on the proposals of the then minister of public instruction, M. G. Leygues. The large mass of evidence gathered by the parliamentary commission since 1898, when the inquiry began, comprises several substantial volumes.¹ It was the broadest consultation ever put before our country in a matter of public instruction. The commission called to its bar all classes of persons, laymen as well as specialists, and all sorts of bodies, private and public.

In January, 1902, the minister, after having been heard repeatedly by the commissioners, submitted to the High Council a series of proposals on which he and the commission had definitely agreed. The Chamber of Deputies voted on those proposals on February 14, and on May 31 appeared the fundamental decree of the present organization signed by the president of the republic. By an *arrêté* of the same date, a circular of July 19,

¹ Chambre des Députés, Session de 1899, *Enquête sur l'enseignement secondaire*; 6 vols. in 4to (scarce); Paris: March 28, and November 16, 1899 (Nos. 866 et 1196, *Documents parlementaires*).

and a series of subsequent decisions, the minister specified the details of the new scheme and gave the instructions for putting it in practice.

It needs hardly to be said that no commission, however exhaustive its inquiry and however competent its members, even in conjunction with a well-inspired and daring minister, who is himself seconded by an experienced council, could elaborate a scheme so perfect as to bring to a definite solution every one of the problems which called for reform. In matters of pedagogical organization, as in many others of similar nature, there is hardly anything absolute and definite; the leading principles are in these matters farther-reaching and often more valuable than the momentary solutions. If school legislation consists in the application of leading principles as laid down by the educational theorists (who too often dwell on the lofty heights of philosophical speculations, or who work in their laboratories, as it were) to the actual conditions of social, economical, and political evolution; if it consists in adapting school affairs to the present, in harmony with the genius of the race, in order to prepare for the future—in taking such measures as will enable a country to meet all demands involved in its own progress and for a fair competition with other nations—school politics have to be as wisely conducted as state politics. Schools stand nowadays in the very center of life, physical and intellectual, social and moral, private and political, and share with life all the problems which every day shapes into new forms. It is with these views, and with the sincerest intention to create a living and vital organism both of national life and of general civilization, that the Third Republic has undertaken to reorganize its secondary education. How far this noble aim has been approached, we may see by a comparative study of the main features of the reform, and by a review of the problems which it has tried to solve or suggested.

II

Some of these problems are of a general nature and affect or have affected almost all European countries. Secondary education on this side of the Atlantic has a long and glorious history behind it. From this long past it had carried into modern times

many peculiarities which, after having made its force and its glory, appeared to be serious obstacles to further evolution. In new countries, like America, I imagine that an opposition like that of the "classics" and the "moderns" would hardly be fully understood. Yet it was out of that struggle that all the problems of secondary education arose which called for solution during the second half of the bygone century and which, to a certain extent, are still unsolved.

The exclusive *classico-humanistic* character which marked this division as "secondary" (or "higher," in opposition to "primary," "elementary," or "lower") has been gradually stripped off everywhere. The study of Greek first, then that of Latin, has been made optional, reduced, or totally dropped; the study of other so-called "modern" subjects, chiefly scientific, has been strengthened or made predominant; new subjects have been admitted into the programmes. The unique classical type was dissolved into two, sometimes three or more, types.

Parallel with the *Gymnasium* or "Latin school" (also *Gelehrtenschule*), the German system and its imitators developed a *Realgymnasium* (with Latin, but no Greek), and a *Real- or Oberrealschule* (without any ancient language at all). In France the parallelism had been more strongly accentuated and made an absolute dualism after the creation in 1865, along with the *enseignement secondaire classique*,² of the *enseignement secondaire spéciale*, which became in 1891 the *enseignement secondaire moderne*. Each of these two *enseignements* had its own *baccalauréat* to crown the curriculum. This dualism was complicated to the utmost by a series of modifications and complements from 1886 to 1898, when the republic was trying to fit old imperial and royal *lycées* and *collèges* for the requirements of modern life and democracy.

In other countries, where it was also felt that philosophical formalism and the traditional classical education no longer answered the needs of modern society, "modern branches" (*cotés*) were grafted on the old system at a certain point of the curriculum by means of "bifurcations." Yet, the bifurcation

² Governed by a law of the 4th Floréal in the year X (April 23, 1802).

system means virtually the dropping of classical language in the introductory stage of the curriculum, which all pupils enjoy in common before they separate into purely or half-classical work, on the one hand, and purely modern studies, on the other. In the last instance it involves the unity of the whole of secondary education. The great variety in the secondary schools of Switzerland is mainly due to the convenient application of the bifurcation system. In Germany it led to the *Reformschulen* (the systems of Frankfurt on the Main and Altona); but neither in 1890 nor in 1900 did the "unitarians" succeed in converting the opinion of "schoolmen," although they showed most favorable results, and although they enjoyed the sympathy of the administrative authority. Norway proceeded in a frankly radical fashion by abolishing ancient language-teaching altogether. On the top of a common, purely modern middle school, which is common to all pupils, the higher secondary grade is built up with a linguistic-historical and a scientific division. Latin—never Greek—may be taught as a "deviation from the law and by special permission of the Storting and the King."

Such were the general conditions in Europe when France in 1898, and Prussia in 1900, undertook to reorganize their secondary education. One point was clear everywhere: secondary education has to answer the requirements of modern life. Another point was easily carried, at least officially: the equal value of a modern or "real" secondary education with a "classical" secondary education. This brought about the fall of the last fortress of the classics—the privilege of preparing for university studies.

Prussia was ready first. In November, 1900, the king of Prussia, the emperor William II, when at Kiel on board a man-of-war, launched the well-known rescript in the beginning of which he declared "classical" and "real" education of "equal value for the culture of mind." Already in 1890, when opening the Berlin conference on secondary education, he had uttered very energetically his belief that "real" studies fit a man for life better than the philological training he had himself had when at school. The programmes of 1862 strengthened the *Realschulen*, but did not much weaken the partisans of the classical education;

the latter were not deprived then of the precious palladium of preparing for the universities. Since 1900—the new programmes came out in 1901, and nearly all the federated states have followed Prussia—university studies (except theology) are thrown open equally to “gymnasial” and “real” graduates, without any, or with very small, restrictions.

But this capital concession made no great change in the system of secondary education as a whole. The new programmes are established according to the emperor's indications. While expressing his hope of seeing the antagonism between the “classics” and the “moderns” come to an end, by giving them equal rights, the monarch allowed each side to accentuate the respective character of its teaching. Thus Germany is steering toward the dualism of secondary education: the “classical or humanistic *Gymnasium*,” and the modern *Oberrealschule* (or, in the shorter six-year form, the *Realschule*), with a curriculum of nine years. Neither the *Realgymnasium*, which continues as an intermediate type, nor a partial combination of the programmes of both, is a sufficient link between the two independent and fully organized school types which represent German secondary education. The “reform” type, which seeks to keep the unity at least in the first three years of the curriculum, was encouraged in 1900 “as deserving of experiment on a broader basis.” Philological and official Germany has saved once more the “humanistic” secondary school. It remains to be seen whether industrial and commercial Germany will allow it a long existence or not.

In 1902 France also recognized the equal value of classical and modern instruction. But the same cause had with us effects quite opposite to those which we have noted in the neighboring country: France has given up definitely the dualism in secondary education, after having tried it for nearly half a century. On account of Graeco-Roman civilization, she could not repudiate classical instruction; for political and economical reasons she felt it her duty not to subordinate modern studies to it.

The French reform of 1902 unifies classical and modern secondary education in the following way: The course of secondary instruction lasts *seven* years, and is divided into a

first cycle of four, and *second cycle* of three years. At the end of the whole course a single diploma is granted, the *baccalauréat*; whatever the subjects may be which a candidate has pursued and which are mentioned in the diploma, the *baccalauréat* confers equal rights and privileges with regard to his further studies, etc., without distinctions or restrictions. This sanction is the chief official safeguard of unity in secondary education. There is another, inherent in the mode of instruction: The *first cycle* (four years) allows a choice between *two sections*: Section A with Latin (compulsory for the four years from the first class upward: VI-V-IV-III) and Greek (*optional*, beginning in Class IV); Section B without Latin or Greek in the four classes. In either section the studies are arranged so as to constitute a finished course of instruction in itself; it may be called *secondary studies of the first degree*, and is acknowledged by a certificate bearing that denomination and given to any pupil, without special examination, on the marks gained during the four years.

Moreover, for some subjects, the programme is the same in both sections, and the same number of hours is provided in the corresponding classes in A and B. This permits common instruction by the same teacher of the largest number of pupils in both sections, and safeguards *unity of instruction*.

The *first cycle* produces three categories of scholars: (1) classics (Greek-Latinists); (2) half-classics (Latinists); (3) moderns, who may proceed farther toward the *baccalauréat*. The "classics" and the "moderns" continue in their categories. Among the "half-classics" a certain number may give up the study of Latin, and devote themselves to modern subjects, giving the preference either to modern languages or to sciences.

To meet those demands, the *second cycle* comprises *four groups*: A, Latin and Greek; B, Latin and a more developed study of modern languages; C, Latin and a more developed study of the sciences; D, modern languages and sciences. Here too the programmes and time-tables of the (three) classes are arranged with the view of combining for common instruction in some subjects the pupils of two or more of the different sections. During

the whole course of secondary education, the pupils, whatever their principal courses may be, never lose touch with each other; the single final diploma, although it mentions the specialties of graduation, seals this unity.

It may be useful to examine at once some of the aspects of this new organization, to see how it meets the chief problems called forth by the character of secondary education.

While the German emperor expressed his hope that, by proclaiming the equal intrinsic value of classical and modern secondary education, he might see the antagonism disappear between the partisans of the two sides, he has nothing to say against the schools of each sort accentuating their own proper character. He shows the way toward dualism. In France, for somewhat different reasons, the difference of opinion as to the value of these "cultures" was at one time quite as profound as in Germany. The dualism of two distinct secondary schools and two *baccalauréats*, as it had existed since 1865, was the backbone of this antagonism. By a compromise between the two systems, we took a shorter and, I think, a better way toward union than we should have done by strengthening each and waiting until one of the systems became strong enough to kill the other altogether. The action of Norway, which had neither the philological glory of the Germans nor the Graeco-Latin civilization of France to dwell on, is not open to every country.

This was the first of the general problems of secondary education which had to be settled—antagonism of classical and modern culture; dualism or unity. Whether Germany or France has done the right thing, experience will show.

A direct consequence of this first problem was the question: Why has secondary education been on the whole sterile? We have answered: Because it was too rigid and too uniform. Instead of being a school for general culture, more extensive and more scientific than could be afforded in primary schools, it prepared for the university; it was the professional school for the liberal professions. Those boys who had neither the desire, the money, nor the intellectual strength to run through the full course could not enjoy secondary instruction, and either lost their own

time and that of the others, or had for various causes to break off their studies before completing the course. Hence the necessity of rendering the system manifold, supple, articulated. The present French system is characterized by variety within unity. Whether a boy is gifted or not in mathematics or in ancient languages, he finds what he is able to study, or likes most. When he has entered a section and feels that it does not suit him, an easy passage into a more convenient one is open to him at any time. It is hoped that the variety will afford also a better training of the boy's capacities.

The first cycle represents, as said, a course of secondary studies *complete in itself*. This distinguishes our system from the German *Reformschule* (*gemeinsamer Unterbau* without Latin in the three lower classes), and recalls the Norwegian *Middel-skole*, where, however, there are no sections similar to our A, B, C.

When a pupil, voluntarily or compelled by circumstances, leaves the secondary school after four years "secondary education of the first degree," a certificate, to which no prerogatives are attached, testifies to his education at school. The Berlin conference of 1890 had established a similar *Abschlusszeugniss* after the sixth year of the nine-year curriculum, chiefly in order to induce a part of the scholars not to proceed to the universities. But, as it meant a break-off more than a conclusion, and as the rush to the universities did not cease, the emperor abolished it in 1900.

In France a boy reaches the end of the first "cycle" when he is not too old to enter a business career or an apprenticeship. As he does not obtain the privilege of having only one year of military service which the German boy enjoys when he stops after the sixth year of the curriculum, or any other privilege, and as he knows that his studies have come to a certain conclusion, he has not in the same degree as a German *Sekundaner* the feeling that he ought to go on and seek for the *baccalauréat*, after which it is quite natural also to enter the university. But, should he feel inclined to push his instruction farther, otherwise than by entering any section of the ordinary second cycle, there are special two-year courses arranged for him, with modern languages

and applied sciences as chief subjects. These courses may be arranged wherever necessary, and the teaching there may give prominence to such special features as the needs of the region, commercial or industrial, may require. It is worth mention—to emphasize the flexibility of the new programmes—that, as a general rule, our secondary schools are independent enough to develop certain subjects which are especially sought for in the town or region where they are situated. But of that later.

The division into two cycles is not, as it appeared to be in Germany, a harmful break of the whole curriculum, but an articulation of the system, conceived in order to answer better the requirements of our society. It was from a new conception that our school legislators definitely adopted the following principle: Public instruction, like all social institutions, must be so organized as to allow by a simple and easy play of its parts any adaptation, not only to the existing, but also to the possible conditions of life—conditions of which one can foresee the possibilities, if not the exact forms. We shall have to speak in a later paragraph on the seven-year curriculum, instead of eight and nine years, as in Germany and elsewhere.

This principle leads us to a third problem of a general character: the actual position of secondary education within the whole domain of public instruction, and especially with regard to primary education.

Secondary education has kept itself for a long time in a noble and dignified isolation. It is still considered as the school of the bourgeois, of the well-to-do classes; it is very expensive, while primary education is free. Although we do not in France call primary schools *Volkschulen*—a term which originally signified “schools for lower or poorer classes”—our democratic feelings do resent a difference of rank between the two systems. The primary teachers, educated in the primary schools and in the training colleges of normal schools, are a body quite separate from the “professors” of the secondary schools, educated in the secondary schools and in the universities, into which, by the way, many pass by promotion or competition or adoption. There is no intercourse between the two classes of officials of the same

profession, either social or professional, except that secondary teachers often are called to train or to inspect their "minor" colleagues. Efforts have been made in France and elsewhere to bring them nearer to each other. A few years ago "mixed" congresses were organized for secondary and primary teachers, but the union has not been very much encouraged. The question of training primary teachers in secondary schools and in the universities³—a problem which is eagerly discussed in Germany, and which seems happily solved in some Swiss cantons—aroused in France a storm of protest from the primary teachers themselves. It was officially raised two years ago in the Chamber of Deputies by the *rapporteur* on the budget of public instruction. The special as well as the daily press agitated it pro and contra. Putting it on political grounds, the primary teachers saw in the project an attempt to drown the hotbeds of true republicanism and democracy—which the normal schools in France really have been and still are—in the "bourgeois" spirit of the secondary schools. This fear is, at any rate, exaggerated. The democratic feeling of our primary "corps" is strong enough to resist, if not to overcome, the "bourgeois" spirit. Moreover, a freer, more liberal, and above all more scientific training of the primary teachers, which they will find better in the universities than in their "lay convents," seems to be urgently required by the continuous progress of primary education itself. However, to suppress the training colleges in each of the French departments, to make provision for the instruction of primary teachers, men and women, in the secondary schools, and to organize within the universities courses for their scientific and professional—chiefly pedagogical—training, means a great reorganization, and there is no chance of seeing it carried within the near future.⁴

Yet the present ministry seems to grant a smaller, though not less important, reorganization. The secondary instruction, says

³ See *Revue pédagogique*, July and August, 1905, March, 1906; *Manuel général de l'enseignement primaire*, 1904 and 1905. A collection of other documents on the question is in preparation.

⁴ As in Prussia in 1902, France has (in 1904) revised the programmes of the training colleges.

the fundamental decree of 1902, is *co-ordinated* with the primary instruction and continues a regular four-year course of primary studies. Still our secondary schools continue up to the present day, in conformity with the ministerial decree of 1902, to give elementary instruction in the so-called elementary or preparatory classes. The only difference between the elementary classes of a secondary institution and an ordinary primary school is that the programmes of the former include modern languages. There is a contradiction to be removed, if the intention of the decree was to put pupils of the ordinary primary schools and those of the secondary elementary classes on the same footing, with a view to enable them to enter the secondary curriculum. It seems a truism to say that it is more logical to suppress all primary education in the secondary institutions, and leave it to the ordinary primary school. This has been done in most European countries, not excepting Prussia, the country that invented the *Vorschulklassen* at a time when in eastern Prussia there were no proper accommodations for elementary teaching. At present those classes exist in a Prussian secondary school only when self-supporting, as the Prussian ministry does not grant a cent toward their maintenance. In France the primary teachers call very strongly for the removal of what they call a discouraging competition on the part of the secondary schools. Curiously enough, democratic France still professes a strong repugnance to the common elementary school, compulsory for all children without distinction of social rank, while in monarchic Germany the *allgemeine Volksschule* is almost the rule.

The present minister, it is said, intends to establish the "monopoly" of primary education. If that means "primary education by primary teachers," so as to close up the elementary schools hermetically from all contact with other grades, the primary "corps" would win a doubtful independence. For pedagogical as well as for social reasons, there are many teachers, both secondary and primary, who regret the existing difference in the methods of teaching the same subject—for instance, the mother-tongue, or natural history. How will it be possible for a youth, who gets a scholarship, to enter a secondary school at a

given age, when he has got his first education—the most important—in a style totally different from that which he suddenly finds in the secondary school? If you demand an “equal chance,” it is certainly not by building a Chinese wall between the two systems that you will get an open door. Or, do the primary teachers hope to achieve a higher primary system so strong, so varied as to ruin secondary education, as it were, by a sort of trust?

Some school administrators have thought of another way. It is fair, so they say, to give any boy, poor or rich, a chance of getting all the instruction he may wish for. The full “equality in instruction” of all degrees was one of the principles of the Revolution. It was partly realized when primary education was declared “free.” Secondary education, on the contrary, remains the most expensive, more costly even than university instruction. Therefore make it free too, at least for all those who are fit to profit by it. The proposal was brought before the Chamber of Deputies in 1905 by the same *rapporteur* who was asking for the training of primary teachers in the secondary schools and in the universities. It commends itself for various reasons. Social justice, first of all, in a democracy like ours. It would bring about the incorporation of the two systems into one organism of all the shades of education which it is desirable, and yet, in the present state of things, difficult, to realize. Not all countries are in the position of Denmark or Norway, for instance, where secondary education is organically built up—not co-ordinated only—on primary. Yet, free secondary education means a heavy burden on public funds. Even supposing that on many points an easy amalgamation could—and certainly would—take place between the higher primary grade and the “first primary cycle,” leading to simplification and economy, nevertheless the effects of such a measure might outweigh in an unfavorable sense the generosity of the intention. It is feared, not without good cause, that the working class would lose its best men, who by and by would prefer the easy and showy career of an official to energetic labor in agriculture, industry, or commerce.

I think, for my own part, the proposed freeing of secondary

education too generous and dangerous. The ineffectiveness of secondary education, as it was recognized during the inquiry on the "crisis," is partly due to the material conditions of our secondary schools. These schools are self-supporting—we shall have to speak of their legal status later on—and they must live. Many a scholar who is a harmful dunce in his class is allowed to go on because his father pays. There should be no hesitation; those pupils should be dismissed after a year's trial. Another set of pupils, generally of not much profit to the school except for their fee, were those who came to the secondary school because such attendance granted some abatement of military service. Now that every Frenchman has to serve his full period, no matter whether a learned man or not, this class too will disappear from the clientele of the secondary schools. Moreover, the secondary schools of the religious congregations, which attracted the boys of snobbish and mostly reactionary "bourgeois" society, have been done away with. How will the state schools make up for these losses? There, I think, the intelligent youth of primary schools will have to come in—the poorer, but well-gifted boys who deserve to be encouraged by scholarships to attend secondary schools. Instead of making all tuition free, grant a larger number of scholarships. But, in order to insure competent selection, an interrelation between the primary and secondary schools must be established. And again we have to recall to mind, not only the suppleness and variety of the 1902 organization of secondary education which no doubt will facilitate the interrelation, but also the clear statement that secondary education is co-ordinated with primary. To sum up in regard to the relationship of secondary education to primary in France, at present we must confess that the "co-ordination" exists only in the law; that possibilities of closer, even organic, connection are provided for in that very law, but that the minds, both of the public at large and of many specialists and administrators, are not prepared yet to realize it.

With the universities our secondary education continues, of course, the traditional relations; but these relations are becoming more organic. Since our universities have become autonomous

again, a new and vigorous life is noticed in each of them. There has been in later years a remarkable growth of new organizations through which the various seats of higher learning have tried with success to be directly useful to the region where they are situated. Nowhere, except in England, has the American university been studied with more sympathy—even to the point of imitation, although we recognized in America many traces of our own pre-Napoleonic university—than in France. A large number of subjects, chiefly technical and modern, have been admitted. And nothing in secondary education answers better the variety of these new university subjects than its own variety.

It was an ancient institution in France that the secondary *baccalauréat* should be passed before a jury of university professors. The reorganization of 1902 admits to the jury secondary teachers also. We shall see, when speaking on the programmes and on the teaching methods, how closely the university remains connected with the secondary school in preparing the former and determining the latter. The modern universities reach beyond the secondary school, and have established an effective relationship with the primary; not only by a kind of extension lectures in the so-called "popular universities," but by actually admitting to some university studies, for regular registration and graduation, students with higher primary certificates.

Between the higher republic of arts and science and the lower republic of primary education the isolation of the secondary grades will disappear. The organization of 1902 allows us every hope that the isolation will, though not very rapidly, change into a co-ordination.

From what has been said on the position of secondary education within the domain of public instruction one may gather how necessary it was to consult public opinion on it when reorganization had become a burning question. The attitude before 1902 was a general distrust and disapproval of what was looked upon as an antiquated, energy-killing hotbed of "bourgeois" spirit. The new organization has not yet produced the results on which it would be fair to judge it. Yet there are signs of success, and at least true efforts to secure it. This I hope to show by explain-

ing the legal status of the schools, and their administrative and pedagogical supervision, by examining the new programmes and the methods of teaching which are recommended for each class and subject, and by considering the teaching force. We shall thus see the problems which are not, properly speaking, "national," because they have emerged in other countries too, but which I shall more especially treat with regard to France.

PROMOTION BY SUBJECT AND THREE-YEAR COURSES¹

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The higher education has been much discussed. The lower education deserves special attention. Who can be more interested in its development than the superintendents, principals, and teachers assembled here? Any possible improvement in courses or in methods is in the interest of the masses who may never reach the higher education. As the altruistic and social-service conceptions of the twentieth century win acceptance, interest in the betterment of the lower classes deepens, and the great leaders of thought in the nation and in our state are alive to this evolution.

"The three fundamental things for the improvement of education up to the age of eighteen," wrote President Eliot, "are (1) the extension downward of departmental teaching; (2) the earlier introduction of many subjects now reserved for the high school; and (3) the promotion or advancement of the individual pupil by subject and not by the year or the half-year."

"The greatest problem we have to solve in our great system," said Superintendent Maxwell to the principals of Manhattan and the Bronx, "is to reach the individual and to help the slow pupil. I may say that we are on the verge—I won't say more—but we are on the verge of solving this problem, and by a method which will revolutionize the public-school system of this country.

The public-school system, magnificent as it is in very many respects, needs to be revolutionized. Especially is this true in large cities, where abuses have crept in. An irrepressible conflict is going on between the system and the child. The tendency has been to sacrifice the child to system; now it is more gener-

¹ A paper read before the annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association in Syracuse, N. Y., on December 28, 1906.

ally recognized that system must yield to the child. The school is sometimes likened to a home. In the home we do not classify the children. In the school we have done too much classifying. Ease of classification must give way to the needs of the individual child.

Nature has not made children alike, nor is she fitting them for the same experiences and destiny. As teachers our greatest duty is to adapt ourselves to individual needs. The continuous advancement of John or William, of Grace or Mary, is of vastly more importance than statistics regarding them all.

About a year ago, in referring to a discussion of three-year courses and promotion by subjects which appeared in the *Educational Review* for September, 1905, under the title of "Economy in Education," President Butler, the editor, wrote: "The agitation should be kept up both in New York and elsewhere until something is accomplished. I should think it perfectly possible and very desirable to adopt the point system in dealing with secondary-school pupils." In a letter dated December 18, 1906, Associate Superintendent Edward L. Stevens, in charge of all high schools in Greater New York, writes me: "The scheme of promoting by points will undoubtedly go through this month. We have agreed upon a required minimum of 150 points. The only point at issue now is as to the amount of required mathematics." By a point is meant one recitation a week for a half-year. Promoting by points carries with it, of course, promotion by subjects, which in many New York City high schools is already becoming the prevailing method. The high schools for boys in Manhattan and in Brooklyn, and some of the mixed high schools, have already adopted this method. The schools which seem most reluctant to fall into line are the great high schools in Manhattan and Brooklyn which make a specialty of supplying young women to the training-schools for teachers; but even in these conservative institutions, with five thousand girls as students, special programmes are gaining headway. Many teachers hesitate to say anything for quotation, but when guaranteed protection they say they favor promotion by subject instead of the rigid grade system which is largely responsible for the high per-

centage of school mortality indicated in school reports. It is to be hoped that such expedients as permission to sit in the same room, while recitation goes on, without repeating a subject in which a satisfactory mark has been received, is only a transition stage to full permission to take the next term's work of that subject in another room; also that the system of repeating a term's work in some subject in two different rooms of the same grade may yield to the better plan of repeating unsatisfactory work with only one teacher, and attempting on probation the next grade of that subject with another teacher on the understanding that the lower work may be dropped after the mid-term examinations, in case both grades of work in the meantime are successfully maintained. Thus may the responsibility for failure be placed squarely upon the pupil.

A year ago about three thousand pupils in New York City high schools were repeating subjects in which they had already passed. This estimated number has been much reduced, but in certain schools this evil has not yet been overcome. How far the idea is entertained that to repeat work satisfactorily done in science and English will operate to induce pupils to make up deficiencies in Latin and mathematics it is impossible to state, but that the method is a failure is abundantly illustrated. The number of pupils who have abandoned school because of the pressure of such rules is very great. In the words of Professor E. L. Thorndike, of Teachers College, Columbia University, who has gathered most elaborate statistics along this line:

Approximately four-fifths of those who enter leave before graduating, and the leaving is fairly steady throughout the high-school period. There is not, as in the college mortality, a specially strong tendency to leave at the end of the first year, nor as in the college a tendency to stay through the final year, if the other years have been completed. The mortality is greater in the case of boys than of girls, though not very much so.

The belief that much of this school mortality might easily be prevented has been frequently expressed of late in articles and letters in the metropolitan press. This has been true of Philadelphia as well. The *Public Ledger* and the *Philadelphia Press* have taken strong editorial attitude. The *New York Times*,

the *Evening Post*, and the *Brooklyn Eagle* have also done good service in the cause of flexible grading.

During this agitation several hundred letters have been received from educators in various parts of the country. College presidents and professors, superintendents, principals, and teachers have shared the discussion. Let me quote from Philadelphia, Boston, and New York.

William W. Birdsall, principal of the High School for Girls in Philadelphia, wrote some months ago:

I have been laboring during my three years' connection with this school for some modification of our promotion rules. There is a growing sentiment among our teachers in favor of a more rational system, and I hope that we shall be able to accomplish something before the opening of another school year. I hope that we shall be able to secure the adoption of a rule which will not require the repetition of 76 per cent. of a year's work because 24 has been below the standard. The matter has been under discussion by several principals of the high schools, and was recently considered at a round-table meeting of high-school teachers. This round table developed so much interest in the subject that a committee of teachers from all the high schools is in process of formation, in the hope that the matter can be worked out to a practical solution.

William H. Mearns, president of the Philadelphia Teachers' Association, wrote last September:

Two questions have been uppermost with me. I should like to know what proportion of the pupils that leave school are recruited from those who are compelled to repeat tasks once satisfactorily finished; and I should like to know what percentage of "left down" pupils are promoted the following term. I fancy that the "stale freshman," as we call him here, finds the work stale and unprofitable, and quits it; and I suspect, as well, that our system of dealing with weak pupils (i. e., sending them back a year) is not successful. In the investigation which we made last April (the report of which you noted in the *Ledger*) we asked for the number of hours (periods) once satisfactorily done that were being repeated. We then, as you know, translated "keeping step" hours into teachers. We discovered that the Central High School was employing the equivalent of six teachers *to grind sharp saws!*

Dr. Paul H. Hanus, professor of the history and art of teaching at Harvard University, wrote in part as follows:

To my mind the only rational scheme of promotion throughout a pupil's entire school career is promotion by single subjects and not by groups

of subjects. It is no more difficult to organize a school so that pupils are graded by subjects than by groups of subjects; and the larger the school—i. e., the more parallel classes or sections there are in each subject—the easier it is. It is only necessary to have the recitations in a given subject, say arithmetic, at the same time. No pupil, whether in the lower grades or in the high-school grades, should be required to take again a study in which he has already obtained a satisfactory grade. There is no justification whatever for such a requirement.

Principal George C. Mann, of the West Roxbury High School, and secretary of the Headmasters' Association, comprising the twelve principals of high and Latin schools in Boston, wrote in October last:

We are at present enjoying the freedom of promotion by subjects (represented by "points"). We are unanimous, I think, in preferring this method to the old way.

Dr. Andrew W. Edson, associate superintendent of schools in New York City, last March expressed the administrative attitude in the following vigorous fashion:

I am in thorough sympathy with the proposition to promote pupils by subjects. If a pupil has completed any subject satisfactorily, there is no good reason why he should be required to repeat work in that subject. He can better spend his time in some advanced work. I consider it good policy to recognize quality, as well as quantity, and thus to give extra credit for specially meritorious work. All of the objections that may be raised against this plan are trivial. Organization, management, and bookkeeping in any school should be made to conform to the general plan of advancing pupils in subjects as fast as their ability and application will warrant. To principals who are inclined to question the advisability of carrying into execution the principle involved, I suggest the propriety of trying to find ways and means of advancing this proposition rather than of raising objections to the same.

Associate Superintendent Edward L. Stevens writes:

I am perfectly willing to be quoted as favoring any plan in our high schools which will help the individual pupil.

Teachers in private schools, evening schools, and country schools will with difficulty understand the exact situation in large city schools. To prove the need for this agitation I will not mention scores of cases in other schools of which I know, but simply state the occasion of my entering upon this campaign. A year ago last February I found in one class of thirty

pupils assigned to me for instruction in English eighteen who had just been informed that their marks for the previous semester had ranged from the passing mark to 19 per cent. above. Six of these had been passed by myself and twelve by other teachers. In other words, because these eighteen boys were deficient in two other subjects, as Latin and science, or mathematics, they were condemned, and I with them, to thresh out old straw for the next half-year. In justice to the twelve other boys who had not taken that grade of study I must keep close to the syllabus. Every effort must be made along the line of supplementary reading, new methods, and new illustrations to keep these eighteen who had already passed from the temptation to mental inactivity, if not disgust. With 60 per cent. of the class condemned to repeat five months' work which had been already passed, my indignation arose against the rules which we were literally obeying. President Butler had invited me to write an article elaborating the idea of the intermediate school. To what I had agreed to write I added eight pages on promotion by subjects. The article appeared in September, 1905. President Eliot indorsed the second part. Superintendent Maxwell requested some of the principals to try this method of promotion. Drs. Mickleborough and Buchanan were among the first of New York principals to place their schools firmly on this basis, and to them primarily the credit is due for any progress in flexible grading which has since resulted in New York City. They have proved the entire practicability of the scheme—and its practicability is the main point of attack by its opponents. Some principals have since given the impression that they have always promoted in this way. Taxpayers, parents, teachers, and pupils are heartily in sympathy with the change being made.

I need not here refer to the severe things which have been said and done in this long-drawn-out controversy. I have publicly characterized the repeating of work already satisfactorily done as "a wicked waste of the time and energy of pupils and teachers alike and of the money of taxpayers." At the outset, in a discussion before the Schoolmasters' Association of New York and Vicinity, I declared that "the time will soon come when it

will be regarded as pedagogically immoral to oblige a boy or a girl to take over again a term's work in a subject in which he or she has already clearly passed, as it is pedagogically immoral to permit a pupil to go on without review in a subject in which he has failed."

The evils of the old system are not all understood. Difficulties of programme-making in our schools have been the excuse for rules of promotion vicious in their operation. When pupils are obliged to repeat subjects in which they have passed because they have failed in other subjects, they have sometimes lost interest in what they had already accomplished, and then been obliged to take the entire term's work a third time since they had failed the second time they took it on what they had once passed. How can really progressive principals attempt to condone so frightful a waste? Any private school which put in operation rules of promotion now partially ignored, but not yet rescinded, in New York City would shortly be obliged to close its doors. It is my distinct purpose, if possible, to arouse the public, not only in New York, but in other states and cities, to demand that each pupil, in high school at least, shall be promoted, advanced, and graduated according to proficiency in each of certain numbers of required and elective subjects, without the lockstep penitentiary limitations of time and class. The seating, the classification, the statistics of a school are of slight importance compared with the independent advancement of each and every pupil in our care.

Let me illustrate one evil. Dr. Walter B. Gunnison, principal of the Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, is a man of independence. He has not been restricted by rules in which he did not believe. For ten years he has not been deterred from dealing with the individual boy or girl as he saw fit, regardless of rules. If a clause had been appended permitting in special cases more liberal treatment of pupils than the body of the rules allowed, according to the interpretation of nearly every other principal in the city, he would use it to justify his freedom from rules; but, if no such clause existed, he would use his own judgment regarding each case just the same. What was the result?

While the strict constructionists were driving the weaker or one-sided pupils away by a rigorous application of the existing rules approved by the Board of Education May 3, 1904, he was receiving many of them into his school. Within a year he has told me that he had pupils from fifty-one different schools, and that he or his capable assistant arranged a special programme for each. But how about the pupil? Why should he or she be obliged to cross the city to get what ought not to be denied in the nearest school, offering identical courses of study? The old grade system thus gave rise to varying standards for the same kind of work, and was sometimes cleverly played both ways to the imagined advantage of some particular school, but to the real disadvantage of the slow or irregular pupil found in so many families. A crowded school can ease itself by strict grade rules; a new school can fill its rooms by easy promotions. Promotion by subject obviates both the evil of compelling pupils to repeat studies they have satisfactorily completed and that of allowing students to avoid the repeating of subjects in which they have failed, as was true in the now obsolete system of promotion by general average. Ten years' experience in Erasmus Hall High School with hundreds of part-time pupils has proved that promotion by subjects is possible even in most difficult circumstances.

Another principal who has proved the practicableness of promotion by subjects in city schools was the late Oliver D. Clark, of the Curtis High School in Richmond Borough. At a memorial meeting held in his honor this month District Superintendent D. L. Bardwell said of Principal O. D. Clark:

He believed in the promotion of high-school pupils by subject rather than by class, because it was, so he felt, better for the individual student so to do; to believe with him was to act. That such a policy made more work for the principal and teachers had no weight with him; this plan was better for the pupil, and that settled it. I never knew a man who more thoroughly lived the doctrine that schools are maintained first, last, and all the time for the benefit of the pupils attending than did he.

My own opinions, based on experience and cross-section observation of actual conditions for many years, have fortunately been

recently confirmed. If mistaken, I wished to know it, and so early in October I addressed a questionnaire on promotion by subject, and another on three-year courses, to educators throughout the country. Five editions have gone forth, and detailed returns have already come from every state in the Union except Delaware and Nevada; also from New Mexico and Indian Territory, from Canada and Mexico, from Scotland and England. Thus far, besides those who have written letters, 235 superintendents, 182 principals, 32 teachers, 15 college presidents, 19 college professors, 15 normal-school presidents, 5 state superintendents, 7 inspectors, and 2 lecturers have responded to these questions in detail. Among them are the superintendents of schools in St. Louis, Boston, Denver, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Baltimore, Buffalo, Detroit, Worcester, and Los Angeles.

Regarding these questionnaires Commissioner of Education Elmer Ellsworth Brown wrote in October:

The whole subject is one of great interest, and every experiment such as that to which you call attention, looking to a better care of the needs of individuals, must command the serious attention of those who have to do with American education.

Dr. Michael E. Sadler, whom President Butler once characterized as the W. T. Harris of Great Britain, wrote: "I am very much interested in both your inquiries. Each touches a vital question." Later he said he had called to them the attention of "the chief authorities in London and Liverpool."

Dr. R. Lauth, of Berlin, who according to Dr. Sadler is working out a very interesting comparative study of results in English, French, and German primary schools, writes:

Our present class arrangements are a disgrace both to common-sense and to pedagogy. As long as not every pupil is treated for education on his psychological individuality, so long school must fall far short of its task.

As to the second questionnaire, comparing the present system of four quadrennial courses with a proposed system of five triennial courses, Herr Lauth prefers the latter, "not," he says, "because I care much for mere form, but because I think that even elementary schools should not dismiss their pupils before the age of fifteen. As to mental development," he adds, the "stages

should be fitted not to suit age, but attainments and capacity, which demand brings us back to the needs of sensible classification."

"From what I know of genetic psychology," writes Professor Earl Barnes from England, "I should say the system B," covering five three-year periods, "met the periods of a child's life better than A," the present system.

It is impossible within the limits of this paper to indicate the mass of facts and opinions given in these twenty thousand answers to questions. They are being carefully studied and tabulated, and conclusions are being formulated by a subcommittee of the Committee on School Problems of the Brooklyn Teachers' Association, which, under the aggressive, energetic, and indefatigable leadership of President Lyman A. Best, is as jealous of the rights of pupils as of teachers. This outspoken, unflinching principal has combined with the able and enterprising president of our state association, Dr. Charles O. Dewey, here to bring these vital topics to the consideration of those specially interested in the youth of our state.

Though utterly unable to go into detail, I am glad to state that the responses I have so far received strongly confirm the position taken by Dr. E. W. Lyttle, state inspector of high schools at Albany. Dr. Lyttle writes:

My own notion is that first we must separate elementary and academic instruction into six years each. Let the mechanics of education be taken in the first six years; insist that a pupil shall have mastered the mechanics of reading, penmanship, number, and spelling, and incidentally shall have acquired as much general information as may be. But the test for admission to the high school should be a test purely of power, and of memory only so far as power is involved. Then in the last six years we could in the high school plan and carry forward progressive courses of study, differentiating widely in the last two or three years of the high-school course. If I am correct in my opinion, the work of the elementary school is largely a work of unification; the work of the high school should be largely a work of differentiation. My whole feeling is this, that we must emphasize the vital difference between the purposes of elementary and secondary education. Failure to recognize this difference, as well as failure to recognize similarity, is responsible for much poor work and for the dropping-off in the grammar grades and in the first year of high school.

At the meeting of the National Educational Association at Asbury Park it was

Resolved, That a standing committee of five members of the Department of Secondary Education be appointed by the president elected in 1905 to consider the question of dividing the twelve years given elementary and secondary education equally between elementary and secondary schools.

The chairman of this committee is Principal G. B. Morrison, of the William McKinley High School in St. Louis. I sincerely hope that this association will co-operate in every possible way with Dr. Lyttle and Principal Morrison.

In general over five hundred sets of answers show that the West is as fully alive as the East, with the exception possibly of Massachusetts and New York. The South is far behind. From Chicago, Superintendent E. G. Cooley writes:

It is the practice in the Chicago public schools to promote pupils from one grade to another whenever they are ready for the higher grade, and this practice is generally encouraged, not only as to classes, but as to individuals as well. There are two promotions from the elementary schools to the high schools, and two times for graduating from the high schools during the year. I give below the number of promotions at the close of each month of last year beginning with September.

From this table I gather that over 46,000 promotions in Chicago last year were made in the eight months other than January and June, when the regular semi-annual promotions occur. This is over 23 per cent. of the entire number for the year, and speaks well for flexibility in Chicago schools. Chicago as well as Boston already has promotion by points in her public high schools.

Regarding the other questionnaire, Horace Z. Wilber, professor of administration in the Kansas State Normal School at Emporia writes:

I am much in favor of the system proposed by Plan B.¹ Especially do I like this below the college. I think the triennial system would go a long way toward keeping pupils in school who are inclined to drop out under the present quadrennial system. There is also a decided gain in the fact that it eliminates a large amount of needless "marking time" in school work.

¹ Plan B—Proposed system of five three-year courses for primary, intermediate, grammar, and high schools, and for college. The present system of liberal education comprises four quadrennial courses above the kindergarten.

While on the face of matters it appears that the period of preparation is shortened by a year, yet the time is not lost, but rather is saved by getting rid of repetitions. The bringing of departmental teaching down below the high school has much to recommend it. I think it would keep a lot of pupils in school who now feel that they have got to a stopping place at the close of the eighth year, and that there is little left for them. The compulsory-education age being coincident with that of the grades below the high school would insure pupils getting a start in what are now designated as high-school subjects, and consequently would have a tendency to keep them in high-school work, as my experience has been that pupils drop out at the close of the eighth year quite largely because they do not see the value of the high-school work, and because they often think it is altogether too difficult to be undertaken by them. Placing a year of the high-school work in the grammar-school period will go a long way toward overcoming these difficulties. I think the students would not be too much crowded with work by this arrangement. I also think that it offers better opportunity for grouping subjects. I do not think that the proposed plan would in any way cheapen the high-school or college courses. In the interests of educational economy and progress I favor the Plan B proposed.

I am following the trend of the opinions expressed in the majority of the answers received when I say:

1. That school education should not be divided into three periods of four years each as at present, but into two periods of six years each. The subdividing into three-year courses depends on local conditions.
2. That thus secondary education should be extended downward to six years.
3. That departmental teaching should extend throughout the six years of secondary education.
4. That during the seventh and possibly eighth years, or the first and second years of the second six, a semi-departmental system—i.e., one in which each teacher takes two subjects instead of one—may suffice.
5. That promotion be made by subjects throughout the six years of secondary education.

It is a well-known fact that principals of small high schools in towns, with few assistants and practically the same course of study, manage, in some way, to make a programme which avoids repeating subjects already satisfactorily passed. If they can, the

city principals can. The coming February term is none too soon to put such a programme into operation.

Superintendent Maxwell has done many things for New York City. Not the least is the unifying influence of the so-called Maxwell examinations which have standardized high-school work. I am glad that the authorities at Albany recognize the beneficent results and have taken measures to extend the system over the state.

We are in the days of wise supervision and of co-operation between state and city school officials. But are not the topics I have here suggested also worthy of consideration? Differentiation is as important as unification. Flexible grading will result in adapting the courses of study to the needs and capacities of individual pupils, thus rendering the studies pursued as beneficial to the masses who never can go to college as to the few who do. It has been stated in Syracuse that only six of every hundred pupils in elementary schools ever enter high school, and only one of these six ever enters college. More and more must educators keep in mind the wants of the great majority. We must yield to the public necessity. The great problems of getting school buildings and adequate appropriations have so occupied the attention of school authorities that these matters seem to many to be petty details. But success depends on capacity for details. I have known many cases in which school careers were wrecked on the inflexibility of rules conscientiously applied. Away with rules the application of which works disaster to our girls and boys! This is a deliberate movement for the liberation of the lower education. It tends to improve teaching by giving the masses greater power over their own destinies, even though they may be youth and children. I appeal to those in highest authority in the grandest of all states to give these matters the serious consideration the needs of the child demand.

THE AMERICAN BOY

IMPRESSIONS OF AN ENGLISHMAN

REV. J. A. DEWE, A.M.
St. Thomas College, St. Paul, Minn.

The ordinary human boy is an interesting and a complicated study. He is the resultant point of the combined action of forces widely scattered in time and place. He is not only a fresh and natural presentment of the peculiar type of nationality to which he belongs, but he reveals characteristic family traits that may be traced back to bygone generations; in speech, in gesture, in his whole ensemble, he is a faithful living portrait of his country and of his ancestry. Then, together with this, every boy has, in a more or less marked degree, the elements of barbarism. In fact, he is a barbarian without knowing it. His irreflection, his overpowering impulses, his fits of generosity, his reverence for imagined heroes—all these are traits of barbarism and they harmoniously blend with his racial and genealogical characteristics.

The boy is a frolicsome cartoon of the nation to which he belongs. The French boy, with his air of abandon, cries out in the morning: "Oh, where is my ball?" The German boy, with military gait and lineal countenance, is already an embryo soldier. The English boy, with his lordly mien and his hands in his pockets, shows already the meekness of those of whom it is said: "The meek shall possess the land." But the American boy stands apart from all the rest. The rapid development of some of his faculties above the others, the curious twists and turns in his moral cosmos, and the extraordinary combination of opposite forces that he exhibits, place him on a high pedestal in the museum of juvenile types.

The first thing in the American boy that strikes the casual observer is the old-fashioned seriousness of his nature. In other

national playgrounds, whether in Europe or in Australia, the boy just loosed from school is as frisky as a colt on a frosty morning. He romps and plays wanton tricks on his companions through sheer excess of animal spirits. But the American boy either trudges like a man of business to the nearest car for home, or walks naturally to his special haunts of sport or pleasure. Any acceleration of movement is not so much from animal spirits as from the sober judgment that he has to be at a given spot in a given time.

The same absence of animal *esprit* shows itself in other ways. No game is played without a certain amount of previous calculation and careful weighing of the respective merits of the combatants. Much activity may be shown during the game itself, but in the short intervals of the game when, for example, it is a question of fetching the ball gone beyond the boundary, the slowness and carelessness of movement are almost provoking. Such distinctions made between movements that belong to the game and those that do not clearly show that the game is not so much a relief to an overflow of animal excitement as a series of conscious and deliberate efforts.

The extent to which hazing is carried may be regarded as another illustration in point. Bullying is fairly common both in the English and in the continental schools. Usually, however, it is instinctive and unpremeditated. In America it is accompanied by a considerable amount of forethought and conscious will-power. Instinct by itself is powerful, but when accompanied by deliberate effort it becomes still more so; hence the systematic thoroughness that characterizes the American hazing.

Together with this seriousness of the character of the American boy, there is another remarkable characteristic, and that is his precocity. The practical judgment of the American boy is far more developed than that of his English cousin. He is quick in seeing the practical side of things, in acknowledging the *fait accompli*, and in devising expedients to obtain what he wants. He is also quick in sizing up the qualities of those with whom he comes into contact. These natural gifts are perhaps not altogether compatible with childlike reverence, but they do certainly

form a strong basis on which to build his commercial success in after-life.

The American boy is serious, precociously practical; and these qualities largely account for the spirit of independence that he manifests. All over America professors in colleges and in universities bewail the lack of obedience—that the American boy has no idea of doing anything he does not like. Perhaps it is a pity that the boy should thus anticipate the privileges of adult manhood, but there is a compensation. The American boys in a college show in a remarkable degree what Aristotle calls the power of self-restraint. It is true that they are alive to the fact that they or their parents pay the salary upon which the existence of the college and professors depends, and that they are not slow to exercise this power of the purse, but rarely do they abuse it. The European boy or the English boy, placed in similar circumstances of liberty, would run wild; but among American boys there already exists a certain tradition of order and restraint. The discipline of a college, unlike that in the old country, depends more upon this tradition, and upon a half-sort of understanding among the pupils themselves, than upon any external coercion.

This certainly is one of the most promising features of the American boy, and it shows itself also in the laboring classes. The average American workman, for self-restraint, for courtesy, far exceeds his compeer in the Old World. Again, an American crowd also exhibits the same high qualities of order and self-restraint.

There is one peculiar trait in the American boy which not only saves him from a great deal of unhappiness, but also fits him for very high work in the future. He has no nerves. In this respect he is like the Japanese who can sleep soundly in the midst of sudden and most untoward noises. Not only is he obtuse to shocks of a physical nature, but his mental susceptibilities are not easily aroused. He seems to have been fitted out by nature with intellectual oilskins. Rough abuse, pungent sarcasm, are turned off like arrows from the hide of a rhinoceros, and only a smile greets the thrower of the dart.

Though the American living in a variable climate may be

swayed by his emotions, he is certainly not liable to that inconstancy that proceeds from the action of outward trivial circumstances. The imperturbability of the American character has been remarked, it has been impersonated on the stage, and it is very conspicuous even in the boy.

But it would be a mistake to suppose that the American boy is hard and callous. Perhaps for the very reason that he is not emotional, his moral virtues have a more practical character. He is ever ready to forget and to forgive, and one can often see him performing really self-sacrificing acts for those to whom he owes but little in the way of kindness. But these acts of generosity are done in a typical Yankee matter-of-fact sort of way.

Regarding religion, many are curious to know whether the Yankee lad has any religion at all. No doubt the Yankee lad would resent any scrutinizing or criticism on this heading as not pertaining to other people's business. A boy's conscience is a more subtle thing than one would imagine, and in the case of the American boy the thick curtain of bluff and adult secretiveness has to be lifted up. But it is sometimes permissible to view him at his acts of private devotion, and even here to a mere casual observer he seems to show the same business-like spirit and easy imperturbability. In fact, he would seem to regard his spiritual exercises as a series of short jobs performed under supernal supervision. There is none of that hushed awe and emotionalism that the English schoolboy shows before any important religious function. Still, if bad deeds are avoided and good ones performed, much will have been accomplished.

On the whole, the American boy has many attractive features, but he requires careful and considerate handling. It is easy to pander to his defects and to fail to bring out those high, sterling qualities with which he is naturally fitted.

Unfortunately the self-reliance of the American boy somewhat precludes him from the advice of those who are older and more experienced than himself. Any rash intrusions upon his confidence and the door would be shut in our faces. But a gentle reserve and appeal to the reasonableness of his nature will always elicit a response. Anyhow, the American is not amenable to the iron hand, even though it be cased in the velvet glove.

THE UNASSIGNED TEACHER IN THE SCHOOLS¹

F. E. SPAULDING, PH.D.

Superintendent of Schools, Newton, Mass.

A teacher unassigned, as the term implies, is a teacher without a regular class. She is not without regular and definite duties, however. She helps the teachers in the building in which she is stationed to do what they would be unable to do alone.

The day's work of an unassigned teacher may be something like this. For the first half-hour in the morning there comes to her room—the unassigned teacher ought always to have a room of her own—a little group of a half-dozen children from a third grade. The third-grade teacher has selected these children because they are all having difficulty, beyond that experienced by their classmates, with some process in arithmetic, perhaps it is multiplication or division. The unassigned teacher has previously been informed as fully as possible concerning the condition and needs of these children. The half-hour is spent in discovering still more accurately the peculiar difficulties of each one, and in giving each just the assistance and practice which he requires. This work is individual so far as need be; at the same time the group can usually work together advantageously.

At the end of the half-hour these children return to their class, and a group of children come from the seventh grade; perhaps there are only four in this group. They are not having unusual difficulty with any subject. Quite the contrary; they need more work and more difficult work than their class as a whole is capable of. Yet they are not fitted to pass at once successfully into the class next above theirs. The unassigned teacher prepares them for this long advance step. She takes them through the essentials which separate the work of their present class from that of the class which they are preparing to enter. Today, and perhaps for several days, the work is in arithmetic. Other days it will be history, or geography, or grammar.

¹ Read before the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Cambridge, Mass., September 26, 1906.

When the period is over, these children give place to a group from a fourth grade. The members of this group are neither having unusual difficulties nor are they capable of more than their classmates. They are temporarily behind the work of their class. There has been an epidemic of measles in their room, and they have been kept out for several weeks on account of illness or exposure. The unassigned teacher's work with these will be similar in purpose to that with the last group; she will take them rapidly over the essentials covered by the class during their enforced absence.

The unassigned teacher's fourth period is occupied with a full division, perhaps twenty pupils, of children of the fifth grade. They come from a large class composed of two grades, the fourth and the fifth. To relieve the regular teacher of some of her many recitations, the unassigned teacher takes the work in arithmetic with the fifth-grade division.

The fifth period is devoted to a single child. He does not belong to any grade, judged by the evidences of ability which he shows when assigned to any definite task. So he probably comes from a class in which he is not too conspicuous on account of his size. The unassigned teacher tries patiently to determine just what the serious obstacles to the child's advancement are. He may have to be sent to a special class for defectives. Possibly, with sufficient individual attention, he can work into some regular class.

Thus, the unassigned teacher's day is filled full and more than full. I need not account for the remaining periods individually. There are more groups of children working for special advancement; there are more getting special help which will enable them to catch up, or to keep up, with their classmates; there are more peculiar children, children whose abilities are unusually difficult to discover and to enlist in the work of the school.

Each group continues to go to the unassigned teacher at regular intervals, usually daily, until the purpose for which they were sent has been accomplished; sometimes this requires but a few days, in other cases it takes weeks. The original group may

change its personnel from time to time, by receiving new members, and by discharging old ones, who have ceased to need special attention.

Such is a brief description of the obvious work of the unassigned teacher, as she is employed in the elementary schools of Newton. At present there is one such teacher stationed in each of the larger buildings, and in some of the smaller ones in which the needs are especially urgent. It is the purpose to increase the number of these teachers as circumstances permit.

In the high school there are now two unassigned teachers. Their work subserves ends similar to those indicated in describing the function of these teachers in the lower schools. There are always pupils who need more help, or a different kind of help, than the regular instructor is able to give. It is the needs of individuals, whatever they may be, which are not adequately met in the class, and which the regular instructor has not time to meet fully out of class, which occupy the unassigned teacher, be she in the high school or in the elementary school.

In a word, the unassigned teacher is at once a general and a special assistant in the work of the school. As such, granted the need of her services, she is an important member of the teaching corps. As we have considered it thus far, however, there appears nothing sufficiently peculiar or significant in her work to warrant the prominent place on your programme which you have given this topic.

But our description of the rôle of the unassigned teacher has been quite superficial; it has touched only such aspects of her work as any observant layman could readily see. In reality, the position is one of far greater importance and much wider-reaching influence than has yet appeared. But we can fully appreciate it only as we comprehend the profound effects of certain conditions of organization and certain ideals of achievement, which dominate the practice and so determine the product of the public schools. To these conditions and ideals, and to their influence, I must now invite your attention. And I make no apology for giving the elementary schools the most prominent place in this discussion, even before this audience; for in the elementary school

we shall find the origin or the preparation of most of the weaknesses and shortcomings observed in the student of high school or college. And in the elementary school we must begin to apply the remedy, if we would hope for a satisfactory product at the end of the school or college career.

Perhaps it is unnecessary to say that while, in considering directly the function of the unassigned teacher, I have in mind the position as it exists in the Newton schools, I do not refer especially to those schools, in the discussion which is immediately to follow; the reference is to public schools in general, as I have known them in several states and in many places. I may add also, once for all, that many marked individual exceptions to the general conditions and practices which I shall describe have come within my experience. But for these exceptions I should hardly feel the confidence I entertain in the feasibility of unlimited improvement in the work of the American public school.

The people are always critical of the raw product of school or college; teachers, too, from kindergarten to university, are no less critical—once each year. Some voice their protestations, and some are silent; but no teacher ever found the entering class in September quite satisfactorily taught and trained. The primary teacher not infrequently thinks she would rather receive pupils with no previous school training than take the product of the kindergarten. The high-school teacher finds the grammar-school graduate possessed of more or less information on a variety of subjects, but with little real command of that information, with little independent ability to use it effectively in getting further information, whether by observation or by the use of books. The college professor finds the freshman, at best, well filled with the subjects required for admission, but poorly prepared to grapple independently and in a profitable manner with what he considers really serious college work. The college graduate enters the postgraduate or professional school, and there at last, in seminar or in laboratory, he must begin to learn how to study, to observe, to think, to reason independently.

The burden of all this ascending chain of annual criticism is this: Pupils do not know how to work; they do not know how

to study; they do not know how to use books; they cannot read; they cannot direct and control themselves, nor can they follow directions intelligently. The great autumn task of every teacher is to break in his new pupils; to show them how to do things; to teach them to take directions, and to train them in self-control. Gradually criticism gives way to a growing satisfaction until, by June, we find these same teachers as proud of the result of their instructions as they were critical, ten months earlier, of the work of others.

Was the criticism, then, unjust? Or is the pride unwarranted? Neither, wholly, I think. The pupils in September were unable to satisfy reasonable expectations regarding habits and power of work and study and self-direction; but long before June they have learned to respond to the peculiar requirements of their new instructors—something quite different, though, from a marked growth in independence and self-control. The real explanation and the reconciliation of these alternating stages of criticism and of commendation, through which the normally advancing pupil has to pass periodically, involves a fundamental and characteristic weakness of our school work from beginning to end.

The primary aim of our schools, however contrary the theories or ideals which we cherish may be, the real end toward which the organization, the administration, and the methods of instruction and training tend; is not the production of students who know how to work independently; who know from experience what real study is, who are able to use intelligently even the textbooks which they handle for months or years; who can observe and think and reason with confidence within the sphere of their normal capacity; it is rather the teaching to all alike of a prescribed amount of fact and rule and principle of the various subjects of the curriculum. But little demand is made upon the pupil's active powers of observation, of comparison, of inference, and of judgment; he is required to make but little use of the knowledge, which he is supposed to possess, in the interpretation and acquisition of more; his constructive imagination receives little exercise: the constant appeal is to memory and imitation; the uniform requirement is obedience and conformity. In short, the

child's receptive and passive functions are made to occupy the schoolroom stage almost exclusively.

I do not forget our "modern methods" and their appeal to the pupil's interest; I do not forget our modern text- and reference books, their variety and their attractiveness; I do not forget our modern school apparatus and material of all kinds, that serve to vivify the deadest subject: all these—methods, books, apparatus—have quite transformed the typical school of our fathers. A space of irksome restraint bounded by four bare walls has been made into a beautiful room filled with a life of gentle and agreeable busyness. Pupils are no longer vigorously compelled to do what they do not want to do; they are no longer forced to refrain from doing what they do want to do: the school day is so filled with pleasant passivity that aggressive activity, whether for good or ill, has little chance.

Why do not our pupils become more independent, more thoughtful, more capable of self-direction in matters of the schoolroom, shall we ask? The simple answer is that we do not require it; we do not even permit it. Instead of a graded course of training in self-direction and independence, growing more and more difficult, making larger and larger demands on these powers of the pupil, we have almost the reverse. Unquestionably, the kindergarten and the primary grades do more to develop this side of the child's nature than any period of equal length throughout his school career. In these first years the child learns to adapt himself to the régime and the routine of the schoolroom; he learns a certain minimum use of books and other apparatus; he masters the mechanics of reading. All this discipline is of the highest value to the child; it is educational in the best sense; it requires for a time the full exercise of the child's active powers of observation and of self-direction. But after this elementary adjustment is once complete, the pupil is made to face few problems which adequately tax his active powers; and we search in vain for any conscious and persistent effort to train the pupil systematically, progressively, and unceasingly, day after day and year after year, into the power

and the habit of independent work, in the art of study and the real use of books. The meager acquirements of the first three or four years of school life, with relatively slight additions and modifications from time to time, are made to do service for the whole subsequent school career; while the powers that were exercised in gaining these acquirements are allowed henceforth to lie dormant or to atrophy.

I anticipate the disagreement of some, perhaps of many; and I hasten to admit that I can offer no conclusive proof of these statements. Indeed, they are scarcely susceptible of proof at all; they are based on direct observation—observation extending over many years and embracing the work of hundreds of schoolrooms. I will merely call to your notice, chiefly for the sake of concrete illustration of the conditions which I have described in general terms, two or three facts which doubtless most of you can verify from your own observations, if not from your own experiences.

After a few months in a well-taught first grade, the pupil is able to find his lesson from the page announced by the teacher. How much more command of his book has the eighth- or ninth-grade pupil—I leave it to you to set the limit still higher, if you choose? He has gained facility and accuracy, of course, in finding the desired page; but no advance has been made in the real use of the book which is at all commensurate with the seven or eight years which separate the older from the younger pupil. Why not? Simply because through all those years almost the only requirement in the use of the book has been to find the assignment by page and chapter.

Again, when the lessons are found, the eighth-grade pupil studies in precisely the same manner as the first-grade pupil—he simply reads the lesson over and over. Why do those seven years show no advance in the art of real study, in the power of quick and intelligent analysis and grasp of the thought symbolized on the printed page? Simply because no adequate instruction, no progressive training and practice, has been given in that priceless art during all those years. Lessons have been assigned by chapter and page day after day and year after year; those lessons have been studied day after day and year after year in the manner

indicated, and they have been recited in due order and with more or less completeness and accuracy, from beginning to end.

Most reasonably good schools give effective instruction in the elements of reading, so that children learn how to read in two years, sometimes in one; but it is hard to find a school in which reading is really taught continuously and progressively throughout the course, although much time is given to the subject. Children read, usually every day, for eight or nine years; but after the first two or three, comparatively little progress is made. The chief gain is in facility in doing what they learned to do in the first two years; and the more facile the exercise becomes, the more passive becomes the pupil. Our schools show too little practical comprehension of the important truth which Carlyle uttered, when he said: "All that a university or the final highest school can do for us is still what the first school began doing—teach us to read."

But there is not time, nor is it appropriate to my theme, to dwell longer on these common characteristics of the public schools which I have pointed out rather summarily. You all recognize and deplore the helplessness of the average product of these schools. You may not all, however, attribute that helplessness, as largely as I do, to the one-sided training which the schools give. A phenomenally successful teacher of young men in a New England college, whose subjects are philosophy and psychology, has been accustomed for many years to devote one or more lectures in his course for seniors to the art of study and methods of work. Well do I remember the single lecture on that subject which he gave his class eighteen years ago. He began with an apology for devoting the time of even one recitation to that theme; yet his students of that day were unanimous in their judgment that the lecture was the most profitable one of the year, and I, for one, have never since thought otherwise. So I read a few days ago, with no little surprise, these words by that beloved professor. He writes: "I have had students completely carried away by my lectures on methods of work in the fall term, and declare that 'if they had only known that freshman year it would have made such a difference with them,' and yet in three months' time the entire effect had passed away, and they would do only

what I forced them to do by actual drill. I am confident, therefore," the professor concludes, "that the earlier education of the student must be wholly by imitation, which should be more or less blind."

With the profoundest respect, I express the conviction that the professor's conclusion finds little justification in the real nature of normal boys and young men. He has mistaken for a natural characteristic, quite excusably for one in his position with his experience of mistrained students, what is chiefly the effect of many years' unbalanced and inadequate training and instruction; and this brief quotation makes him appear hardly to appreciate that learning to work intelligently requires, and is richly worth, years of progressive practice and tuition.

Those of you who are persuaded that the common and generally admitted weakness of the graduates of our schools is largely a product of instruction and training, or rather the lack of it, and not wholly a natural limitation to be overcome, if at all, only by long practical experience, are invited to examine with me now the underlying causes which are responsible for the characteristic work of the schools, as it has just been described. Let us, for once, not fly cravenly to the almost universal refuge of educational reformers of all kinds and degrees, and declare solemnly and impressively that it "all comes back to the teacher and the teacher's personality;" that truth has, doubtless, been very fruitful, but as commonly used today it is absolutely sterile, serving only as a convenient resting-place for all real thought or activity. In the present matter the teacher is the slave, usually unconscious, of circumstances largely beyond her control, even when recognized. She is under threefold bondage: the bondage of a condition, the bondage of an ideal, and the bondage of a fact.

The condition is the nearly universal system of grading and promoting pupils. The ideal is mere knowledge as the chief and almost the sole end of all teaching and learning. The fact is that the teacher herself has been educated under these conditions and professionally trained, if at all, to perpetuate them. Let us examine briefly the nature and the effect of each of these bonds; they are the chief fundamental causes which we are seeking.

The typical and prevalent system of grading and promotion determines that any given group of pupils who chance to start their school life together shall advance together throughout the elementary-school course, each learning the same amount of the same things, in the same way and in the same time, as all the others. Whether the promotion periods are annual, as is usually the case in New England, or semiannual, or even more frequent, the effect of the system is the same so long as the advancement is made by classes. This plan, unmodified, does violence to the very essence of personality, unlikeness, as we all recognize whenever we consider children as real living individuals, and not merely as one type of units in our school system. Striking as their physical differences are, these do not compare with the mental and moral differences which they exhibit to the open and unprejudiced eye. The evils of unadjustable school furniture, which are pretty generally recognized, are trifling compared with the evils of an unadjustable system of instruction.

Many earnest and more or less successful efforts have been made in different places—New England has been extremely conservative in this matter—designed to adapt the system better to the needs of individuals. Some of those who realize the unnatural uniformity of the usual plan appear to be most impressed, however, with one of its minor, almost incidental defects; they make spectacular exhibits of figures purporting to show the grand total number of years lost by the children of a community in passing through the school course—a number which sometimes proves to be larger than the total number of years actually consumed. But far more serious than the loss of time, which, without exaggeration, is considerable, is the loss in quality of work, in character of effort. A single typical illustration will make this evident.

A sixth-grade teacher has a class of forty or fifty children. They represent all degrees and kinds of natural ability. There are the quick and the slow, the bright and the dull, the strong and the weak, the thoughtful and the thoughtless, the careful and the careless, the patient plodders and the brilliant triflers; there are those representing all combinations of these characteristics, and many more.

Their attention, measured in terms of knowledge which the

school up to this time has labored to impart, are hardly less diverse. There are those of quick perception and retentive memory who have absorbed, with scarcely an effort, all that has thus far been put before them; there are those who have been laboriously "prepared for promotion" at the end of every school year. Do you know what preparing pupils for promotion means? It means equipping them for the occasion with the mere appearance of knowledge and understanding to a degree sufficient to allay in a measure the conscientious scruples of the teacher responsible for the pupils' advancement; this is a highly variable standard, but in application it never results in any satisfactory measure of usable knowledge or power on the part of the pupil. And between these extremes, those with an easily absorbed knowledge of all previous work and those with no sure grasp of even the elements of the subjects gone over, there are those representing many degrees and kinds of acquirement.

The time in the year has arrived when our sixth-grade teacher must take up a new topic in arithmetic, if she is to cover the year's assignment in the allotted time. Perhaps that topic is percentage. What shall the teacher do? How shall she present the subject, or what course shall she pursue that will result in the mastery of the meaning and the process by each diverse pupil in her class? The mere statement of the problem in this way shows the practical impossibility of solving it. And the teacher, wisely under the circumstances, wastes no time in attempting it. This is not the problem, indeed, which is most urgently pressing upon her; she is not teaching individuals, but a class. Her problem is to teach the class so much of that subject as will satisfy the requirements of the school; there will be little opportunity for attention to individuals until toward the end of the year when certain ones must be "prepared for promotion." Perhaps the problem as now stated appears to you even more impossible of solution than before; perhaps you cannot conceive how a class can be taught without teaching the individual members of it.

But the teacher has a way of solving this class problem—a way which she has learned at the normal school and by experience. This is the course she pursues. She "develops" the subject before the class; she redevelops it; she works out on the

blackboard, step by step, accompanying her work with such explanations as she thinks her "class" may understand, easy typical examples. After more or less talk about these examples, the class is given a trial at a few problems as easy and as nearly like the models as they can be made. Some are able to follow the model and "do" these problems, many are not; so, more models are worked out on the board, and another trial is made. This trial will perhaps produce a somewhat larger number of correct papers; but the chances are that more model examples must be solved on the board, and further trials given. At last most of the class are ready to go ahead. This going-ahead process consists in solving each day a set of carefully selected problems, growing gradually a little harder; that is, involving larger and larger quantities and departing more and more from the models. This work may go on fairly smoothly for a time, interrupted occasionally by the working and explanation of new models, as the departure from the originals becomes too great for some of the pupils, until one day, through a simple test given by someone who was inconsiderate enough not to inquire about the models that had been used, or through the inadvertent assignment by the teacher herself of some problems not readily twisted into "model" form, the teacher becomes aware that few of her class have any real understanding of the subject at all. If there is time, she turns back with a sigh and redevelops it all over again as before. This kind of work continues until the moment arrives when the class must take up another topic.

Do not think for an instant that I am censuring the teacher; she is rather deserving of commendation for working out the wisest course open to her, under all the circumstances.

But let us look at the matter from the pupil's standpoint, that we may see the more clearly just how he has been affected by the process described. And here we must follow the lead of the teacher and consider the pupils by classes; there is no time to take them individually. What may be called the extremes will best serve our purpose of illustration: those pupils, on the one hand, who get things easily and who have a good knowledge, measured by school standards, of the previous work of the course; and, on the other hand, the dull and the slow, who have

no sure grasp of what has gone before. Both these classes of pupils have suffered, and suffered in the same way.

The first class have not worked; have not exercised their powers of comprehension; have not grappled actively with a new subject, or rather a new phase of an old subject, and mastered it, as they were quite capable of doing, simply because they did not have to do this—because, indeed, there was no opportunity to do it; everything was developed, and explained, and modeled, until there was no chance left them to do aught but passively imitate.

The second class, the slow and the dull, have not really worked, although they may have had a very hard and disagreeable time; they have not exercised their powers of comprehension, such as they are; they have not grappled actively with the subject, mainly because they were incapable of it. They had never been prepared to take up this subject; the only preparation they had ever known was that “for promotion;” they had not the foundation, the simple fundamental ideas, necessary to a comprehension of it; they might have been profitably and actively engaged in learning how to add and to subtract, possibly to multiply and to divide, intelligently and accurately.

The experience of these classes in this exercise is typical of the elementary-school history of a large portion of pupils who go to the high school and beyond. Is it any wonder that they grow up to manhood and womanhood, even, without learning how to work, how to study intelligently?

But we must turn for a moment to consider the second and the third bonds which go so far to determine the character of school-teaching. I have referred to the bondage of the ideal that knowledge is the chief and almost sole end of teaching and learning. I am fully aware that this is not the predominant ideal eloquently advocated by educational speakers; nor is it, perhaps, the ideal that the majority of the rank and file of teachers think they are working to realize. But I am convinced beyond a doubt that an impartial examination of our schools—their organization, their curricula, their methods, their work—will prove overwhelmingly that the ideal knowledge is practically more potent than all others combined.

The colleges, I believe, are currently credited with much influence in emphasizing and perpetuating this ideal, if not in establishing it. Their influence is generally thought to be exerted chiefly through their admission requirements. I am not sure but that they exert a much larger influence in this direction through their graduates, who become teachers or school officials. Who ever knew a college graduate, man or woman, fresh from a regular college course, without professional training, into whose head had ever seriously entered the thought that teaching school could mean anything else than teaching certain subjects?

But I have no quarrel with this ideal of knowledge, intelligently understood and worked out. In fact, I am inclined to think that, so far as the school in our present organization of society is concerned, this ideal ought to be dominant—not to the degree of virtual exclusiveness, though. But its practical influence in the schools at present—due largely, perhaps, to its intimate combination with an unadjustable system of grading and promotion—is deplorable. We have already noted sufficiently the character of its influence in the typical exercise which was just described. The bondage of the fact that the great body of our teachers have themselves been educated under such conditions as exist today is twofold in its might. It has afforded them only the passive, unbalanced training which we now deprecate; and in the process it has made these conditions to seem necessary, the very indispensable foundations of education itself. The teacher's later professional training, if she has received any, has been calculated to rationalize and to justify those conditions, and to fit her to perpetuate them. All this, coupled with the characteristic conservatism and predominant receptive tendencies of the female sex, who practically monopolize the elementary field of education in this part of the country, renders this third bond altogether the strongest of all. From it, indeed, the two others derive most of their power.

But the hope of escape, or even of slight relief, from this threefold bondage is the worthiest stimulus of practical thought and effort offered by the educational world today. Out of such thought and effort in Newton has grown the position of unas-

signed teacher. And we are now able to appreciate what that position really means.

To relieve teaching from the bondage which we have described, it is necessary, first, to make it practicable for teachers and pupils to do the kind and the quality of work demanded. This means, for one thing, such modification of the system of grading and promotion as will make it possible—nay, necessary—for each individual pupil to work as hard, as actively, and as independently and to advance as rapidly, as his sound and well-balanced development requires. It means, equally, a modification which will insure that no pupil be dragged suddenly and kept perpetually beyond his depth in the ocean of knowledge, but that each one, by his own active efforts, build a stable foundation on which he can advance and rise securely, if ever so slowly. Without going into details, we may simply say that such modification of the system of grading and promoting is taking with us the form of more frequent class promotions and of easily effected group and individual promotions, to the end that in the class work to which numbers compel the regular teacher to devote herself very largely, those of approximately like attainments may be working together. The part which the unassigned teacher plays in effecting this result we described briefly, but sufficiently, at the opening of this paper.

When it has thus been made measurably practicable to give pupils the kind and amount of instruction and training desired, there still remains the great task of emphasizing and making clear the rights and needs of individuals. In this the unassigned teacher is of no little assistance. She assists, not only directly in the work which she does herself with individuals, but even more indirectly. Her very existence and occupation make it necessary for each regular teacher in the building at least to consider constantly and discriminatingly the needs of her individual pupils, that she may select wisely those whom she will send to the unassigned teacher for help. The immediate relief thus afforded the regular teacher, and the further relief afforded by closer grading, makes it possible for her to give herself much attention to her pupils as individuals, even though their number is large.

A further indirect and not unimportant result of the employment of unassigned teachers is anticipated. Our experience thus far—which, indeed, has not been very extensive—leads us to seek for unassigned teachers in the elementary schools the most promising graduates of the normal schools, who have done little or no regular class work. These seem to adapt themselves to the requirements of the position much more readily and fully than do teachers of long experience. This fact alone suggests the character as well as the effect on herself of the habitual work which the regular class teacher does. It is our practice to transfer the unassigned teacher to regular class work after one year's service, and to fill her place with another of like character and inexperience. I do not overlook the constant drawback to the development and perfection of the work of the unassigned teacher which this practice necessarily entails; it means a constant loss of valuable experience in the position. But I am of the opinion that this loss is more than counterbalanced, in the present condition of our teaching corps, by the influence, which is of just the character we so much need, of these young teachers entering the teaching ranks here and there, full of enthusiasm and profiting in some degree at least by even a brief period of experience with individual boys and girls.

Such is the position of the unassigned teacher; such is the meaning and significance of her work. Important as that position and that work is, the unassigned teacher is merely one factor in the efforts that are being made in one little city to work out a great practical problem of unlimited moment. The unassigned teacher is not indispensable to the solution of this problem. There are other ways and better ways to solve it. But the plans we are just now working out, involving the employment of unassigned teachers, appear to be the most expedient for us at present. So even in Newton, the unassigned teacher is quite probably a passing phenomenon. But the great problem whose attempted solution called her into being—and this is my apology, if any is needed, for devoting so much of my address to the character and the conditions of that problem, and so little directly to the work of this teacher—that great problem we have with us everywhere and for all time.

NOTE ON THE METHODS OF TEACHING HISTORY

At the Conference of Teachers of History and Political Science¹ the subject "Methods of Teaching History in European Secondary Schools" was presented in three papers, by Dr. A. C. von Noé, Hans E. Gronow, and Miss Lorley A. Ashléman. The following points were emphasized: History in the German and Austrian *Gymnasium* and in the French secondary schools is studied continuously through the curriculum of six or more years, usually for two hours a week. The usual order in the Prussian schools is that of beginning with ancient history, and then proceeding to the history of modern times. The methods of instruction are based on lectures given by the teacher, oral recitations on assigned lessons, and reading in other sources found in the library. In France, after a trial of the German oral system, there has been a return to the textbook, but only as a preparation for a broader exposition of the subject by the teacher. The Prussian teacher is specifically recommended (1) to give a true statement; (2) to present the topic in his own words; (3) to use (a) historical pictures, (b) a map of the country, (c) poems or novels related to history, (d) original sources. Further details will be found by consulting the following bibliography presented by Professor James Westfall Thompson:

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SHOULD OUR HIGH-SCHOOL COURSES IN LATIN BE EXTENDED DOWNWARD INTO THE SEVENTH AND EIGHTH GRADES? AN OUTLINE OF A DIS- CUSSION¹

I. THE POINT OF VIEW OF A DEPARTMENT OF LATIN

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1. Power to think well and power to express well what we think are the two fundamental intellectual objects of a satisfactory secondary education. There are other objects besides these two; they are very valuable, but they are supplementary, not fundamental.

2. The educational experience of the most civilized countries of the modern world, for now nearly four centuries, points out mathematics as the best generally available foundation-study for developing power to think well, as well as the best study to prepare for the sciences; and also points out Latin as the best generally available foundation-study to train pupils in power of expression, as well as to prepare them for literary, historical, and other humanistic studies. As a matter of fact, no great modern system of secondary education has been constructed without giving a central and ample place to mathematics and Latin. If the best educational experience of the modern world is

¹ The following abstracts are of addresses which will open a discussion of the subject at the Classical Conference at Ann Arbor, Mich., March 28. They are presented in advance of the meeting in order to afford to those who will attend an opportunity for previous reflection and study. Superintendents of schools, principals, and teachers who are interested in the subject are invited to come to the conference and take part in the general discussion which will follow the two addresses by Dean West and Professor Whitney. Programmes of the meetings may be obtained by addressing Mr. LOUIS P. JOCELYN, Secretary of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, S. Division Street, Ann Arbor, Mich. Some considerations bearing upon the extension of the high-school Latin course may be found in an article on "Latin and Greek in American Education" in the *Educational Review* for February.

sufficient to settle this question, it is already settled, and settled decisively.

3. This does not conflict with establishing courses of secondary education without Latin, using the modern languages instead. But it has to be kept in mind that such courses, whatever their other value, are not and cannot be more than *specifically modern*, whereas Latin helps to make a course of study *universal* in intellectual value—and not least so by the immense help it gives in mastering the modern languages; so that, if the question should be, "What is the best way to master modern languages thoroughly and speedily?" the answer is, "Study Latin first." This applies especially to the English language—so much so that a boy well trained in Latin grammar never needs to study English grammar. And the reason is that in studying Latin grammar he is not so much studying a grammar of some particular language as grammar in general.

4. Mathematics is already allotted a large amount of time in our schools, from the beginning of the child's school education to the end of the high-school or academy. Latin, on the contrary, is not usually given more than five periods a week for four years. This amount of time, even adding the prescribed Latin courses of such colleges as require it, is much less than the amount allotted in Great Britain, France, and Germany, where Latin is usually given from eight to nine years and with more exercises a week than we allow. It is safe to say that, taking our education as a whole, we do not give more than half as much time to Latin as these other countries do. We cannot produce the best results without more time.

5. There is a good reason for this in the very nature of Latin as a study. It is not one of the easier studies. And yet it is not worth studying for this reason, but because it is highly useful, and therefore worth making the effort to master. The mastering of something worth while, and something that involves effort to surmount difficulties—thus and thus alone gaining more and more power through virile exercise of the mind—is the indispensable element in any education that will serve as a basis for the whole after-life. Now Latin is the one most generally avail-

able language-study that provides most fully just this training for American boys and girls.

Furthermore, the linguistic and literary sense develops slowly. Its development cannot be hastened, forced, or abridged without injury to the pupil. If we are allotted only four years in our secondary education in Latin, we cannot do in that time the work of eight or nine years. Four years' work needs four years' time; otherwise it is not properly laid out. The best that can be done in four years is therefore the first four years in Latin. We can perhaps stretch it a little, in view of the fact that the loss of all that follows is so great that even a hurried glimpse at the richer and more fruitful Latin that lies ahead is worth giving the pupil, if only to show how much more he would gain if he could have time to go farther. What a pity it is to cut off Latin studies at the very time when the early and less enjoyable disciplinary period is ending, and just before the more delightful cultural period begins—the period when the pupil begins to reap the rich reward, the full fruitage of his earlier study! Four years of Latin is good, but more is not only better, but far better, especially in its effect on the student who after his march through the Wilderness of Grammar is at last in sight of the Promised Land of Literature.

6. This is a promising time to lengthen the school courses in Latin. There is a vast increase in the number of pupils taking Latin. There is also a widespread and spontaneous movement away from the scattered miscellany of studies, away from a smattering of many things, and toward concentration of effort on a few studies of the highest educational value. This is a golden opportunity to purify and clarify our programmes of study; to assert the primacy of the principle that a good course of high-school study consists of a few things of central importance—Latin among them—taught fully and deliberately without haste or crowding or dispersion of effort, and all combining efficiently to one sole end: an end that is only too often forgotten, namely, an education that will serve as a basis for the noblest life and the whole life of the pupil.

II. THE VIEW-POINT OF A DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

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1. The reasons for the present imperfect adjustment between primary and secondary education are historical, and furnish no ground for retention, provided a better adjustment can be made.
2. At the end of the high-school course the average student is about two years behind the point which he should have reached.
3. The remedy is to project basal secondary studies back into the later grades of the primary schools.
4. This remedy is practicable, as shown both by theoretical considerations and by experience, in a well-organized and well-administered system of public schools.
5. Our present adjustment of secondary studies is antiquated, and at no point is reform more urgently needed.

EDITORIAL NOTES

European countries, and especially France and Germany, can give American teachers valuable lessons on the effective teaching of languages. These

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people have learned through much vital experience that the elaborate study of philological and grammatical principles, while of scientific value, may yet leave the pupil quite inefficient in the *use* of a language. The pursuit of rules, constructions, and technical minutiae may give linguistic knowledge of worth to the specialist, but the *mastery* of a language is not acquired in this manner. The Europeans have discovered that their welfare depends in considerable measure upon their being able to understand and employ the everyday speech and writing of their neighbors, and this determines their teaching very largely. Speaking generally, they keep constantly in mind the practical value of a living language, and the pupil is encouraged to use it almost from the start. He does not first memorize a body of grammatical rules, and then proceed to apply them in a mechanical manner; the rules are acquired for the most part after some familiarity has been gained with the language as a means of expression. Most of the teachers whose work I observed proceed on the principle that a young pupil must have at least a slight eye-, ear-, and vocal acquaintance with a language before he can advantageously study its grammar.

One may visit classes in the *lycée* in France or the *Gymnasium* in Germany where he will hear only the English language employed—and good English, too—during an entire recitation. He will find that the teachers use idiomatic English with ease and fluency, and the pupils read and converse in the language without marked difficulty or hesitancy. It seems a mere matter of course in these classes that all are to use as the medium of communication the language being studied, and not simply memorize and illustrate rules concerning it, as we so frequently do in America. Having in mind the work in our own country, I have been often much impressed with the facility of these people, teachers and pupils, in the handling of a foreign tongue. They do not go blundering along, striving to remember and apply formulae they have acquired as a consequence of diligent memorizing. On the contrary, their ears and tongues early become somewhat accustomed by actual experience to grasp and employ the language in an automatic way; and this alone can give *mastery* of any living language. He who interprets or speaks by rule, consciously and deliberately, will get on badly in most linguistic situations in which he may be placed.

These Europeans begin the study of modern languages earlier than we do, and this is of immense advantage in the achievement of their principal aim—the acquisition of a language for purposes of ready and effective intercourse. We start languages late, and we do not expect to use them practically, partly because we imagine that formal linguistic study is good for “mental discipline,” and partly because we have a notion that familiarity with the grammar of a foreign tongue is essential to any sort of comprehension of our own language. These aims lead us greatly to exalt technique, and to minimize fluent expression, and ready and effective interpretation through eye and ear. If we should introduce our pupils to French and German in the elementary school, say in the seventh grade, we should be forced to adopt more efficient methods of presentation. We should lead them to a sense of the use of the language as a means of communication; and we should make them acquainted with it more synthetically, so that they would realize what was to be done with it, before we proceeded to treat it anatomically.

It must prove more or less disastrous to the effective employment of a living language to devote the time at the outset principally to its grammatical study. This method inevitably handicaps the pupil, since he is made conscious of details of construction that ought not to be prominently in the attention at all. One taught in this way becomes rule-minded; he acquires the grammatical habit of attack, and this leads to confusion when he is required to speak or interpret rapidly. The grammatical method made unduly prominent at the outset forces the attention on to the elementary units in language; but, in actual use, one should be aware of only leading features. A good reader in the native tongue, or a foreign tongue either, is never explicitly aware of all the details of every word he reads; far from it. He seizes upon groups of words as units, and ignores a large body of minutiae. But in the case of a pupil with whom technique has been magnified in the beginning, these minutiae fill his vision and hearing, and prevent the ready grasping of the larger unities, which alone have meaning. However, if one has first gained this hold on a language, so that he strikes at what is significant rather than at isolated details, then he may study its technique without losing himself in these details. His early formed habits will save him from such a catastrophe, as is seen in the case of the child who has learned in the usual way to speak his native tongue, and who later on studies its grammar.

The point will bear repetition, that the Europeans have a strong practical motive for mastering modern languages, and this has compelled them to abandon in many places the formal, mechanical methods of teaching which still persist so generally with us. The French, Germans, English, and Italians are so closely associated in all their activities, social and commercial, that they keenly feel the need of being able to use one another's language. It is not a theoretical matter with them at all. They are not spending much

time over the question, so prominent with us: Can one understand his own tongue without studying the grammar of a foreign tongue? The French need to understand English, for instance, when they hear it; and they must be able to read it, and to speak it on occasion; and they go to work with these ends in view to master it in the most economical way; and the principle applies to other nations and languages. Modern languages are as practical and necessary in Europe as arithmetic or spelling is in our own country, and this makes it easier to teach them rationally. It is not quite clear to our people that the German language, say, is of value anyway; and, considering the results of our system of teaching it, there is certainly reason for doubt regarding its utility. But, of course, we must have some sort of philosophy to indorse our practice, and so we fall back on the abstruse doctrines of "mental-discipline," and the vicarious mastery of the native tongue.

In accordance with their general plan of learning a language by employing it as the natives do, the European people are adopting a scheme for the interchange of language teachers, which promises to be of immense advantage. The plan is this: France, as an example, takes a certain number of graduates of Oxford and Cambridge every year, and places them in the *lycées* to give instruction in English. England in turn takes a certain number of graduates of the Sorbonne and other French universities to give instruction in French in her secondary schools. These instructors remain in their respective positions for two or three years, perhaps, and at a small salary, since they are glad to gain experience in this way. It is thought that all modern languages in the schools of the important European countries will soon be taught by native teachers selected in this manner.

I have spoken of the teaching of modern languages only; but it is probable that the classics are on the whole more efficiently taught in Europe than they are in most places with us. At Eton, in England, one may see classes of boys not over twelve years of age listening with evident appreciation and enjoyment to stories read and told them in Latin by the Masters. Latin is used there as a real language, and not as a mass of dead material suitable only for mental discipline; though the grammar is thoroughly studied, of course. The Masters talk freely, easily, and naturally in Latin, and the pupils often respond in the same way. I think I came nearer at Eton feeling that Latin could actually be used in the interchange of ideas than I ever did before. How many of the pupils in the classics in our secondary schools ever acquire a sense of the naturalness and vitality of the ancient languages? If you are a Latin teacher, ask yourself whether the language is for your pupils something very remote from everything that they regard as human and desirable. Of course, we need some sort of philosophy again to appease our consciences and an economical public, and so we cry aloud that pupils ought for their soul's health to study subjects far removed from everything of

real, vital interest. Happily, though, we are growing away from this contention, at least in some parts of the country, where teachers have caught the new spirit of teaching language, whether ancient or modern. The teachers of the Old World are most skilful in elaborating high-sounding but empty reasons for their archaic way of doing many things in education; but one rarely hears anything of the kind in reference to the teaching of modern languages, concerning which the force of circumstances has compelled them to take a sensible view.

M. V. O'SHEA

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BOOK REVIEWS

The Psychological Principles of Education. By. HERMANN HARRELL HORNE.
New York: The Macmillan Co., Pp. xiii+435. \$1.75.

Books on educational psychology are appearing so frequently that we are beginning to greet new arrivals with a query as to their distinctive message or point of view, in the midst of the wearying repetition that characterizes so much of present pedagogical literature, especially on the side of psychology. As we take up a new book, we wonder, when we notice a chapter on habit, if the author has any light to throw upon the subject beyond informing us of Bain's admirable maxims, or we vaguely hope that he may have been ingenious enough to have discovered at least some new phraseology in which to couch these useful admonitions. And we wonder, when we get to the chapters on volition, if any substitutes for James's five or more types of decision have been discovered. Most of the current educational psychologies show little originality or independence of thought. They are made up too largely of such isolated excerpts from general psychological treatises as can be given a pedagogical application, showing no attempt to grapple with the real educational problem and think it out along psychological lines. Educational psychology must really cut loose from the bondage of general psychology, however sound that may be, and determine its own specific problems, organizing psychological facts from its own point of view, rather than simply carrying psychology, as so much given data, over into the sphere of education and attempting to give it a pedagogical flavor. The educator is chiefly interested in the learning process, in the process of growth, and he has a tempting opportunity to think out his psychology with reference to the varied phases of this process.

One can but regret casting a disparaging word at so admirably written a book as Horne's *Psychological Principles of Education*; but, in spite of its containing much excellent material and many good suggestions for practical teaching, it does not present any particularly original point of view, nor does it mark any advance in the general field of educational psychology. The author works from the well-known content of the descriptive psychology of the past quarter of a century, devoting most of his time to making the familiar "pedagogical applications." This he does in a very readable form, and with much simplicity and clearness. After a preliminary discussion of the problem of education as a science, he discusses in succession intellectual, emotional, moral, and religious education. The point of view is not genetic, that is, it is not a discussion of mental growth from the point of view of the various phases of the learning process but rather of the mind as possessed of a certain set of tools which are severally capable of a degree of sharpening, or development, under the influence of various educative agencies. Such a treatment is surprising in view of the author's rejection in the first section of his book, of the doctrine of formal discipline. He takes such familiar categories as sensation, perception, memory,

conception, feeling, the finer and coarser emotions, will, and many others as standing for relatively independent processes, and seeks to show how each in itself may be cultivated. We get from his discussions no light upon the relation of these various elements within a general growth-process. We can best express our criticism of the whole method of treatment by asking the question as to whether the teacher is primarily interested in whetting certain mental capacities or in stimulating a genuine active attitude on the part of the child with reference to certain moral, intellectual, and aesthetic problems, and whether, if such active attitudes are stimulated, the various phases of mental process will not take care of themselves. The educator is interested in the mind as it develops with reference to some problem, not in it as an isolated bundle of capacities. A flagrant illustration of the isolated method of treatment is the discussion of the development of altruistic feelings in another section from that in which the problem of moral education is taken up. This latter topic is treated in an interesting way, but not in such a manner that any new light is thrown upon the difficulties involved. The same is true of religious education, which is treated at length, and which, in the opinion of the author, is the final goal of the educative process, a development of man's capacity to sense the divine, to know God. Here, again, however much we may agree with the spirit of the author's discussion, we feel that the cause of religious education as such would be strengthened if it were freed from conceptions that are in the main philosophical and theological, and were considered from a more scientific point of view.

IRVING KING

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The School and Its Life. By CHARLES B. GILBERT. New York: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1906. Pp. vii+259.

This book falls under the head of a work on school management, though, as its title indicates, the treatment of the subject is much broader than the mere mechanics of school administration. Mr. Gilbert's words upon practical matters come to us with special force because of the respect which his opinions command by virtue of his wide experience in the supervisory and administrative field. Yet it is very delightful once in a while to run across a thoroughly practical book like this one, in which at the same time the results of practical experience are crystallized and exhibited under the domination of a broad and far-reaching philosophy of education. In fact, this is one of the distinctive features of this book as compared with many, if not most, of the discussions of the problems of school administration. The book is not only unified, but also vitalized by certain progressive fundamental ideas which make themselves felt at every point.

Mr. Gilbert has systematically covered every phase of school administration, from the simple district school with its one teacher to the largest and most complex city system. The teacher, the principal, the school board, the supervisor, and the superintendent are all discussed in their relation to one another, to society, and to the work of the school. As we follow the movement of thought through the various chapters, we find the author illuminating such details as motivation of a school exercise, the proper relation between learning subject-

matter and the pursuit of productive occupations in school, morals and manners, obedience, marking of pupils, etc.; while also discussing the more complex problems of gradation and promotion of pupils, departmental teaching, the course of study, the freedom of the teacher, judging results of teaching, teachers' meetings, and so on.

The book as a whole is of interest chiefly to those who are exercising, or who expect to exercise, supervisory or administrative functions. The first five chapters, however, are of general interest to every teacher. They treat of the life and spirit of the school, of its morale and conventions, and of the problem of the individual child. But these chapters are of most significance in the development of a point of view which controls the discussions of the later chapters which deal with the whole technique of school organization and administration. Education is viewed as having not only a psychological basis, but also a sociological one. Too much stress has been laid upon the psychological aspect to the neglect of the sociological. The single pupil is not a school at all. And the process which involves only a single teacher and a single pupil is not one which serves the true function of education. The function of the school is to train youth to social efficiency. This can be done only in a social setting. Yet social efficiency cannot be separated from individual development.

There are two fundamental ideas which, without thrusting them upon you obtrusively, the author never lets you forget. In the light of these two ideas everything must be interpreted and judged, whether it pertain to the work of teaching proper or whether it be a matter of the machinery of school organization. These two ideas may be stated as follows: (1) The school exists not for its own sake or that of the system, but for the sake of the child and for society, and every detail of organization must be subordinate and relative and relevant to the proper end of the school; and (2) the spiritual aspect of the school is the highest, to which all material equipment, all machinery of organization, and all set results are subordinate. To quote the author's own words: "The great danger of organized education is the tendency to produce that similarity of product which indicates machine make." That is, there is danger of setting up a standard from the point of view of the system, rather than from the more internal and vital point of view of the needs of society and the nature of the child.

This book, it seems to me, is one of the significant educational contributions of the year. What makes it significant is in large part the rare combination of philosophic insight with a wealth of practical experience.

IRVING E. MILLER

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English Studies in Interpretation and Composition for High Schools. By M. S. WOODLEY and O. I. WOODLEY. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1906. Pp. xxviii+331.

Woodley's *English Studies in Interpretation and Composition*, as its title shows, is another of the books which correlate literature and composition. The course recommended in *English Masterpieces* is outlined in the first few pages,

and the authors state that in their selection of readings they have aimed "to cover the whole range of human emotions." Those for the first year are narrative and descriptive; for the second year, expository and argumentative. The selections for the third and fourth years are miscellaneous, covering the four forms of discourse dealt with in the first and second years.

The authors believe that in the study of literature the aim should be, not merely to develop the power to read for information, but to awaken the language-sense and to make the student sensitive to literary excellence, and capable of emotional response to whatever purpose the writer may have. In this connection the book offers one suggestion which many teachers of English would do well to heed: "It is better to leave a piece of literature while pupils are still interested, even though they may not understand every word, than to continue the study until they grow tired of the selection and lose interest and pleasure in it. There is often danger of spending too much rather than too little time on a selection; but, on the other hand, it should not be skimmed over carelessly without obtaining any real result from the study."

The several points already mentioned have to do with the study of literature on the passive or receptive side. But the authors of this work recognize the fact that the subject has also an active side, and insist that the student should read masterpieces not only for the matter they contain, but for the literary methods they exemplify. He must look to literature for methods to be used in his own composition, and must read to discover a writer's method in order to improve his own.

The authors of this volume realize that the best way to teach composition is to organize a body of selections from literature so that from them may be learned the principles of composition. This organization has been worked out in the book in the treatment of the paragraph, the sentence, and figures of speech, but is merely recommended in attacking the larger questions of composition, such as the development of the theme, and the handling of the four forms of discourse—narration, description, exposition, and argument.

In the treatment of matters of style, in Part III, there is a very interesting correlation of literature and composition. There are gathered several parallel descriptions, or accounts of the same event, by different authors, to be studied for difference of method. We have two accounts of the Battle of Waterloo—one from Hugo's *Les Misérables* and the other from Byron's *Childe Harold*; three descriptions of Niagara—one by a manufacturer, another from Dickens' *American Notes*, and a third by the poet Brainard; two accounts of the Battle of Quebec—one by Parkman and one by Bancroft. These are only a few illustrations of the most excellent material found in Part III. In fact, the comparative study suggested here is the really interesting feature of the book.

Parts I and II, which deal with the rhetorical side of composition, reverse the order of the older rhetorics and have the following arrangement: (1) the theme; (2) the paragraph; (3) the sentence; (4) the word. The treatment of each of these subdivisions is quite conventional. The paragraph is discussed under the usual headings: unity, variety, coherence, and emphasis; the sentence under the following outline: (1) kind of sentence—periodic, loose, and balanced; (2) the interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory sentence used with rhetorical effect; (3) correctness, variety, unity, coherence, and emphasis in the

sentence. Under the subject of "Words" are considered synonyms, antonyms, long and short words, general and specific words, improprieties.

The illustrative matter for Parts I and II is, of course, taken from literature. Extracts from masterpieces have long been used to illustrate the principles of paragraph- and sentence-building and the use of the word. The really new step taken by some of the later works on composition and rhetoric is to extend the same method to theme-building.

The book we are reviewing has made an advance upon the older rhetorics in recommending this large correlation in English study, though it has itself in general failed to develop the plan except along lines already worked out.

ROSE M. KAVANA

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Every Day Ethics. By ELLA LYMAN CABOT. Preface by DR. WILLIAM T. HARRIS. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. Pp. xiv+439.

This book is a distinct contribution to both the science and the art of ethical instruction. The tendency of one set of writers on moral training has been to dwell upon the various types of ethical theory and the contributions to the philosophy of ethics which have been made by different masters of the subject. The tendency of another class of writers on moral instruction has been to select the various virtues already accepted as important to a good character, and make a pedagogic scale of them by which to determine which sorts of moral action belonged more specifically to one and which to another age of youthful development, and thus guide teachers in choice of material. The tendency of still another class of writers on moral instruction has been to collect and publish varied subject-matter of biography, anecdote, and literature, by which to illustrate the commonly accepted virtues as shown in useful and noble conduct. Mrs. Cabot gives her book a new "center of gravity" in ethics, plainly and insistently expounded and illustrated throughout the whole treatment of her theme. She plants herself frankly upon the theory of "interest" in education which is revolutionizing many courses of study in our schools; the theory that, "if you are interested in anything, you are so far interested in ethics;" that "interest is the seed" out of which the "root of purpose" can alone grow; and that "the moral life is the one in which we carry out our purpose." The difference between various interests in their inherent quality, as judged by their relation to the needs and progress of society, Mrs. Cabot makes of less importance in the personal study and practice of ethics than the vital strength of the interest to the personal consciousness. Every interest, from that of golf to that of art or social service, must, she thinks, develop certain virtues, such as "patience, industry, concentration, perseverance, pluck, self-sacrifice." "Goodness is fitness for a purpose," she declares, and the "pursuit of a purpose" is the "characteristic of the moral life." Each one's "own purpose is unique" and for him of the utmost importance. In analyzing this matter of purpose, Mrs. Cabot distinguishes between a "bad act, or one the consequences of which are disastrous," and a "sinful act, or one which the doer knows to be wrong." "Virtue is loyalty to a purpose held to with alert intelligence, steered away from blinded impulse on the one side and

blinded habit on the other;" and the sinner is one "who keeps out of sight," through "laziness, selfishness, cowardice, or blindness, the side of his purpose of which he is ashamed." "A man being essentially his interest," according to this view, and interests being the seeds of purpose, the analysis of interest and guidance of "Choice of Interests" make up a vital part of Mrs. Cabot's book. She divides into four general classes the forms of attraction which may grow from a mere liking to that sort of interest which can develop into a "purpose strong and steady to hold through darkness and drudgery." These four classes are: "(1) interest in art, or the creation of the new; (2) interest in care-taking, or protecting and freeing the undeveloped; (3) interest in science, or in advancing the boundaries of knowledge; (4) interest in execution, or putting knowledge into use." Mrs. Cabot shows how these four classes of interests hold within themselves the widest and the nearest, the largest and the smallest, purposes, suited to all ranges of being, from geniuses to little children, and emphasizes her point that the "core of good action is doing anything well." Conscience she defines as "the man himself mindful of his aim." "Virtues are simply the means to the fulfilment of any aim." With this central theory in view, the book gives enlightening treatment of such themes as effort, sacrifice and drudgery, selfishness, sympathy, imagination, memory, courage, feeling, thought and action, truth, open-mindedness and prejudice, self-government and the use of time. In the consideration of the doctrine of interest itself the author deals with the problems of the diffusion and boundaries of ethics, and of the power of purpose and how to judge purposes, the darkness of sin, the light of conscience, and the relation of law and custom to morality.

One of the most valuable parts of the book is the "Teacher's Key," in which "Questions for the Class" are set down for each subject, and notes, illustrations, and summary for class writing are detailed for the benefit of those desiring to use the book as a class textbook. The author indicates the ages from thirteen to eighteen as those held especially in view, and helpful suggestions of method based on her ten years' experience in ethics-teaching adds to the practical serviceableness of the work.

It is evident from these sample lessons and this outline of method that the author has treated her task of ethics-teaching as a serious and vital part of school work and as distinct from, although of course supplementary to, the various agencies for moral development which the school life affords. She therefore places herself in line with those who, like Dr. Felix Adler, believe that, in addition to the elevating influence of the teacher of noble character, and to that occasional and disciplinary pressure of moral standards upon the pupil in the ethical experience of the school life by which high ideals and habits of right action are made as far as possible the possession of the child, there should be "systematic and continuous ethical teaching." As Mrs. Cabot herself puts it, her aim in these class discussions is "to train the pupils in fair and thorough thinking, to clear their views of right and wrong, to enlarge their experience and increase their power of sympathetic and considerate judgment." The freshness and originality of her approach to the subjects treated, the fearless application of the theory of education, which is now dominating so much of our pedagogy, to the field of conduct, and the definite aids to material and method, make the author's work in *Every Day Ethics* unusually suggestive. One is reminded

on many pages of Herbart's saying: "The whole of character, not merely one side of it, may be permeated and impelled by moral force." In the world of spiritual life, as in the physical universe, we are now finding "all things of like substance," the motion and direction being the distinguishing qualifications. The book suggests more than it declares to some who have been querying whether the development of interests through carefully planned and widely varied environment is not the first essential of ethics-teaching, and clear thinking about the interests and the purposes that may give aim and direction to life, a secondary element. At any rate, all who have to do with ethical instruction will be the better fitted for their task by a careful study of Mrs. Cabot's book.

ANNA GARLIN SPENCER

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A Text-Book of General Zoölogy. By DR. HENRY R. LINVILLE and DR. HENRY A. KELLY. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. x+462. Illustrated.

This is a distinct addition to the many textbooks of general zoölogy for secondary schools. Prominence is given to animal behavior and environmental conditions, which is certain to create the immediate interest of the student; for, while he is introduced to the sciences of morphology, embryology, cytology, physiology, and evolution, all of which are commonly considered under the title of "zoölogy," he obtains a keener interest in the animals themselves because of his study of their habitats, economic value, and other facts of their natural history.

Only about one-sixth of the students in secondary schools go to college, and less than 4 per cent. of these continue zoölogical work; so it is important that all should obtain the knowledge of the common animals that this book and all good nature-study teach. Each college has its course in elementary zoölogy, so that this text need only supply the necessary common knowledge to those who do not attend college, and the impulse for more zoölogy to those who do, to prove successful.

The authors have begun with the arthropods, worked down to the protozoa, and then ascended the vertebrate scale. Practical experience with laboratory classes has led to the study of insects as the best type for a beginning, and the locust is the subject of the opening chapter. A system very similar to that pursued in Davenport's *Introduction to Zoölogy* has been followed. In the earlier chapters a modified inductive method is used. After the locust is studied, other animals that are closely allied are brought under examination. About half-way through the book, after the student has become familiar with systems of organs, he is introduced to physiological principles illustrated with special reference to the earthworm. Farther on the principles of evolution, as shown by the invertebrates already studied, are set forth in a simple form; and also the ancestry of the vertebrates which are to be considered in the remaining chapters. The last chapter deals with the historical development of zoölogy.

In all there are thirty-two chapters. The first nine deal with insects. Then come in order the spiders, crustacea, mollusca, vermes, echinoderma, coelentera, porifera, and protozoa. After the chapter on evolution, the fish,

amphibians, reptiles, birds, and mammals complete the series. Each chapter takes one member of a group, and studies its habitat and distribution, external plan of structure, the various systems of organs, and its relation to its environment. Its allies are then discussed more rapidly, and the whole is ended by a definition of the class to which the types belong. The plan adopted by the authors seems not only interesting, but educationally wholesome. Most of the illustrations are original, many of them are from photographs of living animals or mounted specimens; and they all picture admirably the desired points.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

ROBERT W. HEGNER

A Course in Narrative Writing. By GERTRUDE BUCK, Ph.D., Associate Professor of English in Vassar College, and ELIZABETH WOODBRIDGE MORRIS, Ph.D., New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. Pp. ix+200.

Every serious student of literature admires the excellent series of books written by Miss Gertrude Buck—two of them written in collaboration with Dr. Elizabeth Woodbridge Morris—on Narrative, Argumentative, and Expository Writing. The first-named of these books, *A Course in Narrative Writing*, by Miss Buck and Mrs. Morris, is equally as good as the other volumes in the series, and makes a distinct and scholarly contribution to the subject. This book treats the subject almost exclusively from the point of view of structure, considerations of detailed rhetorical principles receiving very little attention. Structural analysis is based largely on *Robinson Crusoe*, *The Vicar of Wakefield*, *Pride and Prejudice*, *The Mill on the Floss*, *Treasure Island*, and *The Rise of Silas Lapham*. These excellent narratives form an admirable basis for full and adequate discussions on "The Structure of the Story," "Finding the Story," "The Point of View," "The Beginning and the End of the Story," "Scenes and Transitions," "Character Drawing," and "The Setting, Names, and Titles." Each of these topics is treated in such logical order and with such illuminating discrimination that one can give unreserved praise to the authors for a thoroughly interesting and highly valuable treatise on narrative forms.

But what is the purpose of the book? The authors assert that "the treatment of the subject in these pages is designed for students of college age, though advanced pupils in good secondary schools ought to be capable of using it intelligently." However true this assertion may be regarding college students the statement in regard to its use in secondary schools—even "good" ones—is overstrained. There is hardly a page in the book that does not call for a wealth of reading or a depth of knowledge of life entirely beyond the secondary-school pupil's experience in books and life. As a matter of fact, some of the material, especially the "Exercises," are broad and general enough for a thesis for the second or even the third college degree. An instance in point is the exercise: "Examine somewhat thoroughly the work of any one writer of fiction, and attempt to define his habitual or at least characteristic choice of a point of view. Account for this choice so far as you can on grounds of the subject-matter of his stories." Another exercise tells the student to "read *Edwin Drood*, up to the point at which Dickens left it unfinished, and infer from what you have of the story, its necessary outcome, etc." The mature student would turn to Forster's *Life of Dickens* and "crib" the business; the immature pupil—let us not think what he would do. Another exercise plans for the student to "discriminate carefully

the characters of Mrs. Primrose in *The Vicar of Wakefield*, Mrs. Bennet in *Pride and Prejudice*, and Mrs. Tulliver in *The Mill on the Floss*, noting likenesses as a basis for their manifest differences. Observe the means of character-drawing employed for each." Such exercises, ingenious and penetrating as they are, are nevertheless far beyond the secondary-school pupil. Hence we reject that feature of the book which lays stress on the training of pupils in composition on such themes. But in rejecting this feature of the book we reject the least important part of it.

We are quite in accord with the authors when they assert that the "best fruits are perhaps, after all, those of appreciative reading." Any book—and this book is one of the best for that purpose—that leads a teacher or a pupil to a right discrimination in the just values of fiction-writing, in a quickening of the senses for artistic technique in story-telling, and as a corrective for the neurotic, erotic, and tommyrotic fiction which deluges us today, is worthy of a permanent place in our school libraries—and, if possible, in the schoolroom. The judicious teacher will prize this book for the purposes named, and he will give much of this strong and energizing book to his pupils in homeopathic doses.

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
Milwaukee, Wis.

H. E. COBLENTZ

A Course in Vertebrate Anatomy: A Guide to the Dissection and Comparative Anatomy of Vertebrate Animals. By H. S. PRATT. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906. Pp. x+300.

The writer has no hesitation in commending Pratt's manual of vertebrate dissection as the best single work accessible to the high-school and college teacher, for elementary work in the comparative anatomy of the vertebrates. And this commendation is made after six months' practical use of the book in the laboratory.

The work includes practical directions for the dissection and study of seven types of vertebrates: the dogfish for the elasmobranchs; the perch for the teleosts; the *Necturus* and frog for the amphibians; the turtle; pigeon; and cat. Either *Necturus* or the frog, preferably the former, might profitably have been omitted, though no one will quarrel with the author for giving too much. Each type is treated independently of the rest, and may be studied separately, the teacher omitting any that he may deem necessary; a very praiseworthy arrangement, since the complete course, to be done in any save a very superficial way, is too extended for the usual high-school or even college curriculum. The book of course requires, or at least supposes, collateral study and reading on the part of the student, and especially systematic lectures and instruction on the part of the teacher. It is strictly a laboratory guide, not a treatise on comparative anatomy; and it is one that has been sadly needed.

One might have wished that the author had omitted entirely the very incomplete, incorrect, antiquated, and obsolete outline of the classification of the vertebrates, for which, however, the author is responsible only in accepting Wiedersheim as an authority. The work itself, for which the author is responsible, is remarkably free from errors; the reviewer has observed a very few only.

UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

S. W. WILLISTON

Rhetoric and Composition. By EDWARD FULTON, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Rhetoric in the University of Illinois. New York: Henry Holt & Co. Pp. x+259.

A reserved enthusiasm is a commendable feature in any textbook—even in a rhetoric. An author of a new book on rhetoric and composition should be fired to some little extent with the desire to improve the general run of such textbooks, and not excuse his effort by saying "that it was intended primarily for use in his own classes. As no existing textbook seemed quite to meet the needs of those classes, he endeavored to supply that need himself." We quote these words from the preface of Dr. Edward Fulton's *Rhetoric and Composition*, and we need only add that, if the book has answered its author's avowed purpose, then we should find no possible fault with it. What the especial needs of the classes were the book does not reveal. As a matter of fact, the book is rather a pedestrian effort, lacking enthusiasm and incentive. The old familiars—"sentence length," "kinds of sentence," "clearness," "force," "accuracy," "forms of discourse" (called in this book "type-forms of prose discourse")—march in good and stately order to a well-defined scheme but without much attractiveness.

H. E. COBLENTZ

SOUTH DIVISION HIGH SCHOOL
Milwaukee, Wis.

Talks on Teaching Literature. By ARLO BATES. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906. Pp. 247. \$1.30.

It is common in the field of English literature to deplore the results attained in all grades of our schools. Many efforts have been made to correct the evil; but many of these efforts have been rather whimsical than philosophical. It is a delight to a reviewer to find before him a book showing not only what the writer desires and how he thinks it can be attained, but also just why he thinks it should be attained. Professor Bates has a distinct philosophy for the teaching of English literature, and he has shown himself able to determine the details of a scheme that shall incorporate that philosophy.

The prime question, of course, is whether the philosophy is sound. Its chief glory is that it is based on that rarest of things, simple common-sense. If any conscientious teacher has been puzzled between rival plans and aims, and has been distracted by pressure from without and the pull of serious ambition from within, this book should make him cry out: "The truth shall make you free." Singularly, though the book thrills with vitality, its aim is chiefly negative. It aims to set teachers free from the trammels of empty tradition and to give them in their teaching something to live for—to make teaching a delight to the teacher and a joy to the pupil. Incidentally it should prove a valuable guide to school officers in determining what teachers are fitted to teach literature.

Professor Bates in almost every chapter disclaims any theory as to detailed methods. Seekers for such things will find disappointment; and Professor Bates would doubtless say that such people are not by nature fitted to be teachers of literature, and art cannot fit them. If it were not for unfortunate association of ideas, it would perhaps be fair to give the book a subtitle, "Don'ts for

Teachers of Literature;" but since no air of dictation or of complaint can be anywhere found in it, the title in its suggestions would be a misnomer.

The arrangement of the book tends to make clear the underlying philosophy. After several chapters devoted to introductory discussion, the plan is outlined under four heads, each indicating a stage in the work of teaching literature, as follows: preliminary, inspirational, educational, and examinational. A quotation in each of these fields is worth while. "We fail to recognize . . . how difficult it is for them [our pupils] . . . to *feel* while their attention is taxed to take in the meaning. . . . The preliminary work, besides this study of any difficulties of the vocabulary, should include whatever is needful in making clear any difference between the point of view of the work studied and that of the child's ordinary life" (p. 81). "Any training which opens the eyes to the finer side of life is in the best and truest sense inspiration; and it should be the distinct aim of the teacher to see to it that whatever else may happen, in the lower grades or in the higher, this chief function of the teaching of literature shall not be lost sight of or neglected" (p. 95). "What is important and what I mean by the educational treatment of literature is the development of those general truths concerning human nature and human feeling which form the tangible thought" (p. 111). "More is done in the way of preparation for any rational examination, I believe, by training youth to recognize good literature and to realize what makes it good, than by any amount of deliberate drill of specially prescribed works or the laborious following out of the lines indicated by old examination-papers" (p. 122). With these chapters, or following them, are illustrations of possible applications of the general principles to specific books or kinds of literature. These make clear that, though a good deal of what Professor Bates has said is negative, his philosophy can be very suggestive for the teacher who is fitted to do work in literature.

The points about which those in the main agreeing with Professor Bates are most likely to feel a little dissatisfied with the book are his suggestion that vocabulary be studied independent of context, and his failure to recognize in his discussion, though he doubtless recognizes in his own mind, the difference between the psychology of the adolescent and that of the child. In trying to cover the whole field, he has sometimes said about both child and adolescent what he probably meant to say of only one. Doubtless he expects his readers to make necessary allowances; but the reader would like now and then to know just what allowances Professor Bates would make.

A few quotations to suggest the temperate sanity of his criticisms on common methods should induce many to read his book: "The supreme test of success in whatever work in literature is done in schools of the secondary grades should be, according to my conviction, whether it has given delight, has fostered a love of whatever is best in imaginative writings and in life" (p. 30). "It must always be borne in mind, moreover, that little permanent result is produced except by what the pupil does for himself" (p. 58). "It is so much easier to deal with details than with a complete work that constantly students leave schools where the training is in many respects excellent, and have gained no ability to go beyond the examination of particulars. The far more important power of estimating a book or a play from its total effect has not been cultivated" (p. 203).

"The child feels himself clever just in proportion as he is able so to frame his plea that it secures his end. . . . Out of these homely, universal experiences of childhood it is possible to build up in the mind of the pupil a very fair notion of the nature and the use of literary workmanship; a notion, moreover, which is at once sound in principle and entirely adequate as a working basis." (p. 210).

WILLIAM MORSE COLE

Experimental Physiology and Anatomy for High Schools. By W. H. EDDY.
New York: American Book Co., 1906. Pp. 112. \$0.60.

"This book has been prepared," to quote from the author's preface, "in an effort to call attention to the great field which this subject presents for laboratory study." Any laboratory guide which shows, as this one does, in a practical and teachable way, how the study of physiology may give practice in the scientific method of study deserves recommendation. It meets the requirements of the New York State Syllabus and probably the entrance requirements of any university in the country. Its seventy-two exercises are arranged under the following topics: preliminary exercises, introductory exercises in physics and chemistry, study of nutrients, study of foods, histological studies, principles of digestion, organs and processes of digestion, blood circulation and the blood system, the body skeleton, muscles and motion, respiration, excretion, nervous system, special senses, bacteria.

The spirit of the book is excellent and it offers to the pupil aid in becoming a self-reliant doer and thinker. It must be confessed that the book is usable in its entirety, only in the best-equipped high schools. The studies require microscopes, histological preparations, glassware, and reagents in abundance. However, the subject deserves the equipment, and it is well for the high schools everywhere to receive the impetus which such books give.

In the belief that criticisms made in good faith will be appreciated by the author, the following are selected:

The use of out-of-date nomenclature for chemical compounds is to be deplored. For example (p. 15), carbon dioxide is called "carbonic acid gas." It would be quite as unilluminating to speak of hydrogen chloride as "hydrochloric acid gas." "Phosphate of lime" and "chlorate of potash" are other examples. On some pages (p. 13) the nomenclature is mixed. Neither should a compound receive a name which does not distinguish it from related compounds (p. 19, "oxide of phosphorus," etc.). The author must have discovered that young pupils acquire the correct usage quite as easily as the other.

The practice of determining the *proportions* of the gases in the air by the method employed in Experiment 9 should be abandoned as too inexact even for high-school pupils. There are too many questions throughout the book which can be answered at random by "Yes!" or "No!" and altogether too frequently do the parenthetical notes render it unnecessary for the pupil to make thoughtful observations; for example, pp. 14, 15, 17, 24, 48, 50, 60, 61, 63.

The following (p. 22) is a doubtful statement: "The electric current has broken the compound—water—into its two parts, hydrogen and oxygen." That was the theory of Grotthuss in 1805.

Should the word "digestion" be applied (as on p. 65) to the solution of soluble salts in the digestive tract? Does not digestion always involve some chemical change effecting the molecules of the food?

CHICAGO NORMAL SCHOOL

GRANT SMITH

A History of Higher Education in America. By CHARLES F. THWING. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 1906. Pp. xiii+501. \$3.

There are several standpoints from which one might conceivably write a history of higher education on America, and each would have its advantages. President Thwing has given an eminently readable and human account of the history of higher education with especial attention to the story of older colleges. The beginnings of Harvard and Yale occupy nearly one-fifth of the book. It must be confessed, moreover, that these beginnings have a fascination for the twentieth-century reader. The methods of discipline, the customs and studies of those days seem, if possible, more remote than any other aspect of the culture or life of the time. The author has given numerous original documents, extracts from diaries, and codes of rules, which enable one to enter sympathetically into the troubles of the freshman and still greater troubles apparently of the governing powers. It seems hard to realize that it is only one generation since it was the custom at Yale, as the present writer was personally assured, for every tutor rooming in a college building to have an extra set of window sash always on hand in the room, so that, after frolicsome students had broken out all his glass and gone away, he might replace his windows and not be exposed to the elements during the night.

After the full treatment of the early colleges, a more comprehensive survey of general movements is afforded in successive chapters—"Beginnings of the National Movement," "The French Period," "Colleges of and for an Advancing People," and "In Southern States." Special features are also taken up in certain chapters on "The Course of Study," "Financial History," "Education of Women," "Undergraduate Affairs and Undertakings," "Architecture," and "Libraries." The subject whose treatment many will find least satisfactory is touched upon in chapter xx, "Graduate and Professional Instruction and Degrees." The extraordinary development which has taken place in professional work is very slightly sketched, and the underlying principles involved in the development of graduate work are given very brief treatment. Another important feature which would have been of special interest to readers of the *Review*, if treated, would be the relation of a higher to secondary education. But to mention various subjects of this sort, which might very well have formed the point of departure for a book, is only to illustrate the opening statement that one might write a history of higher education in various ways. President Thwing's book is certainly one interesting treatment, and we may hope others will follow.

J. H. T.

The Recitation. By SAMUEL F. HAMILTON, Ph.D. Philadelphia: Lippincott, 1906. Pp. 369.

The author, who is superintendent of schools for Allegheny County, Pa., has aimed in this book to make plain to younger teachers the general principles of the Herbartian pedagogics. The presentation is clear and orderly; the subdivision of topics is minute; the repetition of the chief points in a summary at the end of each chapter is retained from the original lecture form in which the material was presented. The book contains, moreover, a great deal of good

sense, and numerous valuable suggestions which should profit the beginner. The limitations of the work came largely from the formalism of the scheme followed. If the young teachers should take it too seriously, should suppose that the "five formal steps" must be canonized, or that the various "methods" set forth are to be brought in to the recitation in separate pockets to be drawn out at different times, the effect would be rigidity and superficiality rather than progress and insight. In fact, it would seem that modern genetic psychology on the one hand, and the logic of the sciences on the other, should soon reach a stage of development that should furnish a simple basis for the elementary teacher's work—a basis that will not seem absurdly formal and rigid when tested by the spirit of modern life and modern science. J. H. T.

Schiller's Wilhelm Tell. Edited by EDWIN CARL ROEDDER. New York: American Book Co., 1906.

This is an excellent edition of Schiller's famous drama. An exhaustive introduction treats the theme of the drama, the diction and verse, and the historical background. It also contains a bibliography of the subject. The text is accompanied by instructive footnotes, which also give detailed information on the staging of the different scenes. In an appendix are reprinted some songs and ballads about Switzerland and the legendary Wilhelm Tell, and an account of the shooting of the apple, taken from Schiller's historical source. A vocabulary is added.

Heine's Poems. Selected and edited by CARL EDGAR EGGERT. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906.

The volume contains a selection of 163 of Heine's lyrical poems. In the introduction detailed information about Heine's life and works can be found; also a bibliography. The notes, following the text, are accurate and well chosen. They inform the reader about all points needing explanation. As a whole, it seems to be a very well-prepared textbook, which undoubtedly will help to increase the interest in Heine with college and high-school students.

Am deutschen Herde: Ein Buch über deutsche Sitte und Sprache. Von OSKAR und VALERIE THIERGEN. With English Notes by STARR WILLARD CUTTING. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906.

This book aims to make American students acquainted with German life and customs. It describes the experiences of two young Americans who travel in Germany. The topics cover subjects which are of great interest to foreigners who wish to become well informed about the most typical features of the German people. The little book is written in excellent German and represents a very useful reader for advanced high-school or intermediate college classes. Its value is greatly enlarged by very thorough and complete English notes, and a large vocabulary.

Das edle Blut. Von ERNST VON WILDENBRUCH. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Vocabulary, and Exercises, by ASHLEY K. HARDY. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906.

Die vierzehn Nothelfer. Von WILHELM HEINRICH RIEHL. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises, and Vocabulary, by J. F. LOUIS RASCHEN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906.

Höher als die Kirche. Von WILHELMINE VON HILLERN. Edited with Introduction, Notes, Exercises for Composition, and Vocabulary, by CLARENCE WILLIS EASTMAN. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906.

Gravelotte. Von GUSTAV FRENSSEN. Chapter xiv of *Jörn Uhl*. Edited with Introduction, Notes, and Vocabulary, by OTTO HELLER. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1906.

The first three texts represent suitable readings for intermediate high-school German. Frenssen's *Gravelotte* should offer no exceptional difficulties in the third and fourth year. It was an excellent idea to edit that very interesting chapter of Frenssen's famous novel *Jörn Uhl*, and to give the student an opportunity to become acquainted with one of the best and most modern German prose-writers.

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- The Friendly Town: A Little Book for the Urbane.* Compiled by E. V. LUCAS. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. Pp. xv+380.
- The Book of Fables and Folk Stories.* By HORACE E. SCUDDER. Illustrated. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906. Pp. xiii+179. \$0.50.
- A First Book of Poetics: For College and Advanced Schools.* By MARTHA HALE SHACKFORD. Boston: Benj. H. Sanborn & Co., 1906. Pp. 37.
- Practice in Parsing and Analysis.* By HELEN ARNOLD. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1906. Pp. vii+92.
- Lyrical Poems of Robert Browning.* With Notes. By A. J. GEORGE. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1906. Pp. xxv+136.
- Hellenic Tales.* By EDMUND J. CARPENTER. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1906. Pp. vi+306.

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- Child's Calendar Beautiful.* Arranged by KATHERINE BEESON. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1906. Pp. 350. \$1.
- The High School Course in English.* ["Bulletin of University of Wisconsin," No. 144, Gen. Series. No. 81.] Madison: University of Wisconsin, 1906. Pp. 46.
- How to Speak in Public.* By GRENVILLE KLEISER. New York and London: Funk & Wagnalls Co., 1906. Pp. x+533. \$1.25.
- The Complete Dramatic and Poetic Works of William Shakespeare.* Edited by WILLIAM A. NEILSON. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co., 1906. Pp. xix+1237. \$3.

FRENCH

- La Chanson de Roland: A Modern French Translation of Theodor Müller's Text of the Oxford Manuscript.* With Introduction, Notes, Illustrations, etc. By J. GEDDES, JR. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1906. Pp. clx+316. \$0.90.
- Petite phonétique comparée des principales langues européennes.* Par PAUL PASSY. Leipzig and Berlin: B. G. Teubner, 1906. Pp. iv+132.

GERMAN

- Erstes Sprach- und Lesebuch: A German Primer.* By LEWIS ADDISON RHOADES and LYDIA SCHNEIDER. Illustrated. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1906. Pp. x+109.

SCIENCE

- The International Metric System of Weights and Measures.* By Department of Commerce and Labor, Bureau of Standards. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1906. Pp. 15.
- Simple Experiments in Physics: Sound, Light, Magnetism and Electricity.* By JOHN F. WOODHULL and M. B. VAN ARSDALE. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1906. Pp. v+120. \$0.65.
- Simple Experiments in Physics: Mechanics, Heat, Fluids.* B. JOHN F. WOODHULL and M. B. VAN ARSDALE. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1906. Pp. 142. \$0.65.
- Animal Micrology: Practical Exercises in Microscopical Methods.* By MICHAEL F. GUYER. Illustrated. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1906. Pp. ix+240. \$1.75.

MATHEMATICS

- Plane and Solid Geometry.* By ISAAC NEWTON FAILOR. New York: The Century Co., 1906. Pp. xii+418.

MUSIC

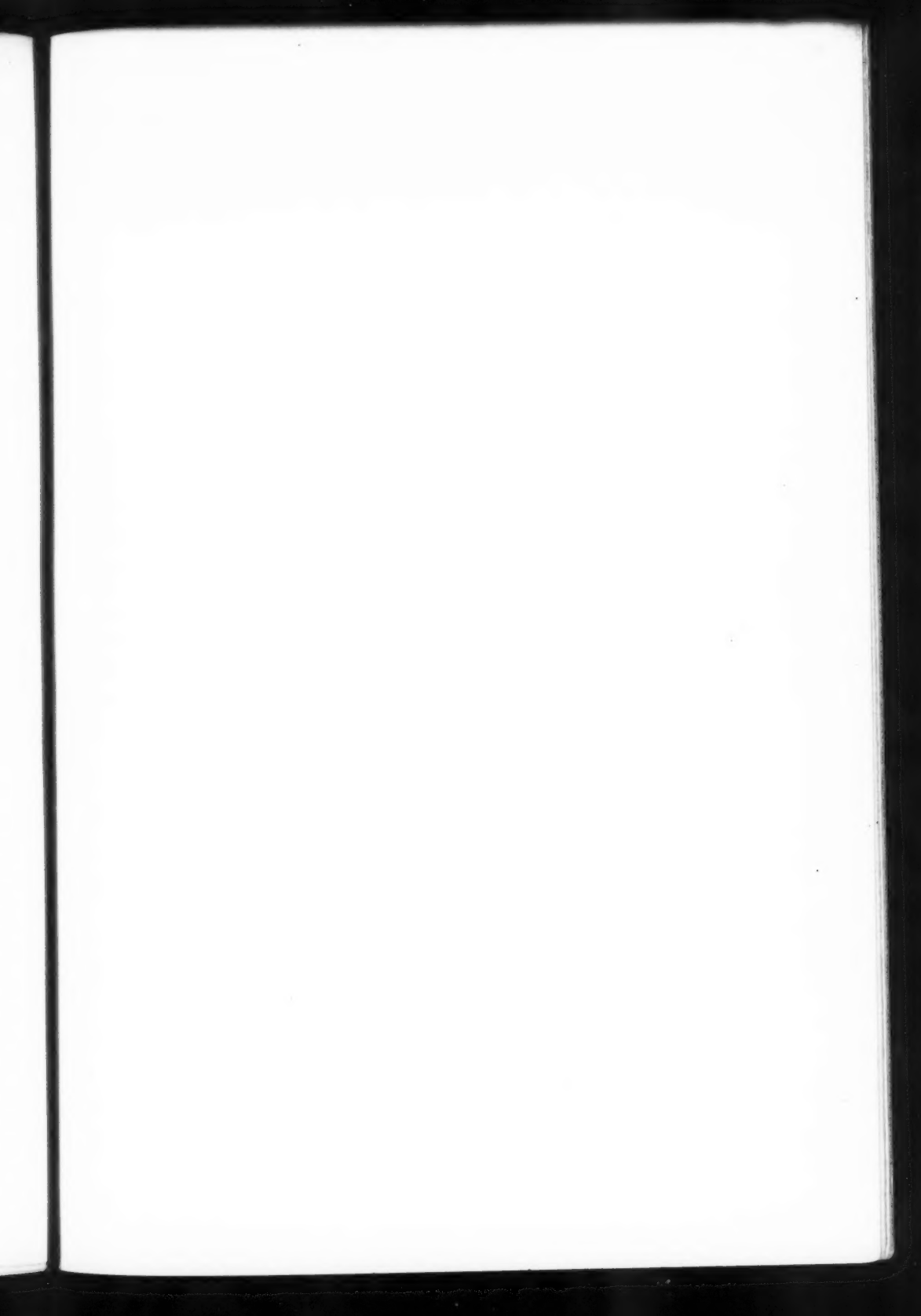
- Songs for Schools.* Compiled by CHARLES HUBERT FARNSWORTH, with accompaniments written by HARVEY WORTHINGTON LOOMIS and B. D. ALLEN. New York: The Macmillan Co., 1906. Pp. 141. \$0.60.

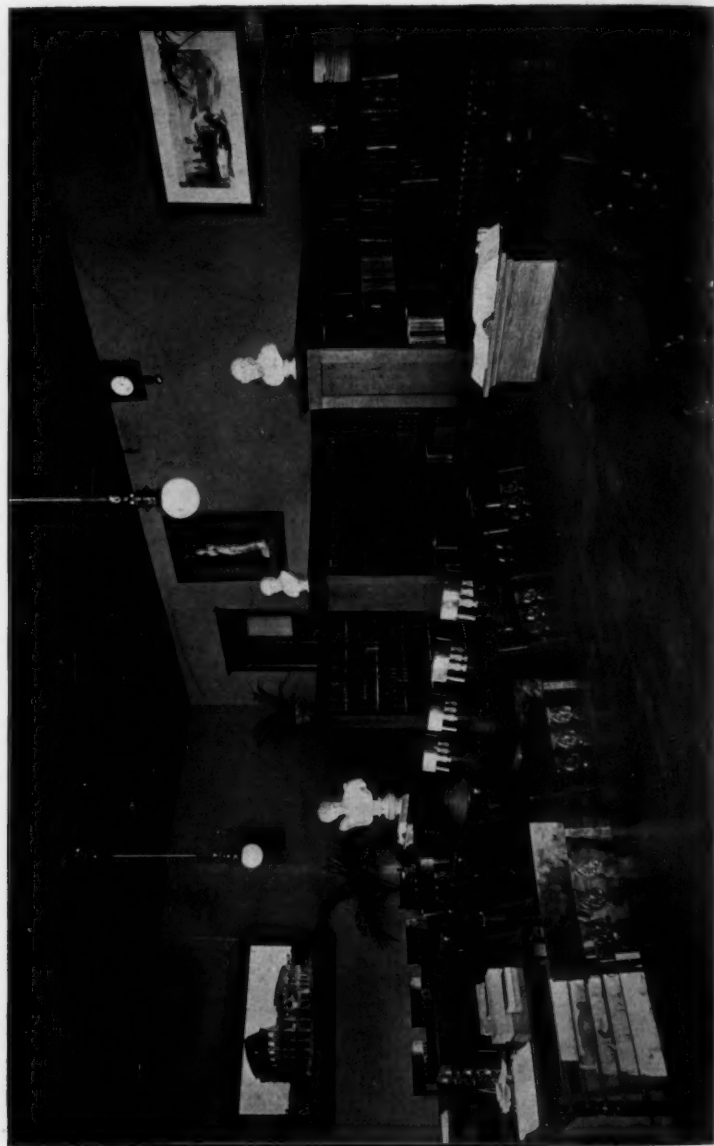
NOTES

The Thirteenth Michigan Classical Conference will be held at the University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, on Wednesday and Thursday, March 27 and 28. At the first session, besides several papers on subjects of interest to classical teachers, there will be an illustrated lecture by Professor F. W. Shipley, of Washington University, St. Louis, on "The Roman Camp of Saalburg: Its Remains and Its Restoration." In the afternoon of Wednesday there will be a symposium on "The Value of Humanistic Studies as a Preparation for the Study of Law;" the opening address will be given by Merritt Starr, Esq., of the Chicago bar. On Wednesday evening Professor Gordon J. Laing, of the University of Chicago, will give an illustrated lecture on "The Art of Ancient Etruria."

The principal subject of discussion at the session of Thursday afternoon will be: "Should Our High-School Courses in Latin Be Extended Downward into the Seventh and Eighth Grades?" Papers will be presented by Dean Andrew F. West, of Princeton University, and Professor Allen S. Whitney, of the University of Michigan; the general discussion following the papers will be opened by Superintendent J. Stanley Brown, of Joliet, Ill., and Principal Webster Cook, of Saginaw, Mich.

Programmes of the Conference may be obtained by addressing Mr. Louis P. Jocelyn, Secretary of the Michigan Schoolmasters' Club, South Division Street, Ann Arbor, Michigan.





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